DE BOW'S

SOUTHERN AND WESTERN REVIEW.

Established January 1, 1846.

J. D. B. DE BOW, EDITOR AND PROPRIETOR.

SEPTEMBER, 1850.

VOL. IX, O. S. . . . 2d SERIES, VOL. III, No. 3—3d SERIES, VOL. I, No. 3.

ART. I.—SOME THOUGHTS ON POLITICAL ECONOMY AND GOVERNMENT.

SOURCES OF PUBLIC WEALTH.

[What is here offered, is but a few abstract reasonings, which have lead us where they would. If the reader "like them not," they will do him no harm; and he is assured the subject is now disposed of by us once for all.]

Of the two sciences, political economy and government (if, in their still crude and imperfect state, the term science be strictly applicable to either), it may be said, generally, the aim of the one is to direct the action and control the excesses of the other, in all those points in which the *public wealth* is involved. This, though it be far from the whole mission of political economy, is yet the most important part of that mission.

The public wealth is an essential element of that public welfare, with which all governments are charged. It comprises everything which relates to the physical well-being of a people; and, as this physical well-being is at the bottom of all social and moral progress—all advances in letters, arts, sciences and civilization—the promotion of public wealth may, indeed, in a liberal and enlarged sense, be considered the whole duty of government. Political economy comes, then, to be considered coextensive with legislation, and sound law is necessarily based upon its principles.

If political economy, like some of the exact sciences, had attained perfection, which is far from being the case in its present stage of infancy, and all its rules and principles were susceptible of demonstration, we should have no more of that multiplicity of legislation, which

results from the continued enaction and repeal of laws, unless, as is too apt to be the case, governments should be administered by the ignorant, and statesmen, miscalled, prefer to pander to popular prejudices or court its acclamations, than carry out the great principles which are founded in truth and reason.

That this last supposition is not improbable, may be inferred from what is every day seen, even in the most enlightened governments: for it will not surely be denied, that there are some, and we believe a great many, settled principles, in political economy, as demonstrable as any moral truths can be, of which ignorance is frequently betrayed in high quarters, and which are openly violated under one pretext or another, or with seeming unconsciousness.

That the law-givers, or law-makers of the world, whether by the divine right which *made* kings and despots, or the diviner right of representatives of the people, have in reality, and in most instances, acted from the best knowledge within their reach, with sincerity and with honest intentions toward those whom they were called upon to govern, need not for our purposes be denied. No sufficient reason for an opposite course can be alleged. Even the most base and heartless tyrant could not but perceive, unless blinded by the worst madness, that his own state and splendor is in some degree dependent upon the extent and prosperity of his realm and his subjects. A systematic warfare against all industry, enterprise and progress, was never, perhaps, the *object* of the most crushing tyranny the world ever knew.

History is not, indeed, without instances, in all ages, where such systematic warfare appears to have been waged against industry and enterprise, by even the best class of governments. A careful examination of the existing powers of the world would, perhaps, present us many such instances of warfare, more or less considerable, notwithstanding all the progress which has been made in civil liberty, science and civilization. Radical differences in the principles and forms of government will not explain these phenomena: they are wholly independent of them. To conceive a republic more unfavorable to enterprise even than a despotism is not difficult, since, if forms of government be much, they are not everything. Though we may not admit the best administered government is best, merely theoretic perfection should have no favor.

To a misapprehension of the true purposes of government, and of the mode of promoting the real welfare of the State, may be traced the greater portion of the evils which society has suffered. Men have not known the truth, or the whole truth. They have legislated without light, blundering on from age to age—the precedent of the sire s

being sufficient for the sons. Nothing so absurd as not to have had an advocate. The more conscientious, the more dangerous and inveterate the error!

The most difficult and perplexing of all sciences is, without doubt, that of government. It requires almost prescience, in many cases, to see the bearing and results of political measures; in all cases it requires more than ordinary apprehension. We are told that the Romans had laws teaching how to make laws; but this could not have applied to other than the mere forms. The acquaintance and study of facts and results, as they are worked out in the movements and machinery of society, from the masses up, under all circumstances, most propitious or adverse, in all times, in all countries, are more indispensable conditions of the statesman, than all the logic and metaphysics of the schools, all the philosophy of the closet.

Experience, which is so excellent a teacher in regard to almost everything in which we are interested, gives not so clear and unmistakable a light in this particular. There are so many counteracting influences and causes at work, so many undefined operations in society, that it is not singular the real sources of evil are so often overlooked and the wrong ones imputed. The results sometimes are very distant. The hand which strikes the blow, the blow itself, may be secret, and yet the mischief be as sure and as irreparable. This is akin to what Bishop Butler remarks of the moral government of the world: the punishment of an invasion of a law of nature, follows not always so immediate as to be traced to that invasion.*

The study of the true sources of national prosperity, is almost altogether of modern date. It is later even, by far, than the philosophical and metaphysical regeneration effected by Bacon and Locke. A century has not passed since the first impulse was given to these investigations, by the publication of a work, which has deservedly immortalized the name of Adam Smith.

Without defining what is called political economy, or entering into any disquisitions upon it, this may be said without controversy: that, in addressing its teachings to the rulers and legislators of the world, what they ought not to do, is a far more important lesson, than what they ought. The "masterly inactivity," proclaimed by one of our statesman, is a safer general rule than constant intervention. There is never any danger that legislators will not do enough in the enactment of every character of laws, and concerning every character of subject. Their vanity of place, the importance which they fancy be-

* See the "Analogy."

longs to a law-giver, whatever the length of his ears, are motives strong enough for this. Perhaps, in the very worst governed society upon earth, there are good laws enough in force to ensure the highest degree of liberty and prosperity, were they not clogged by others that are absurd and inimical! A repeal of all these worst laws, however numerous, would not necessarily call for the enactment of better ones in their place. Enough of such laws may already exist.

"*Thou shalt not*," then, is a far more frequent and useful injunction, in the decalogue of political science, than "*thou shalt;*" and in teaching the people, the *governed* (if they can be supposed to require instruction in what is for their best interest and permanent welfare, in all their various avocations of life, as they certainly may be), a field is opened which exhausts the whole subject of political economy.

That that is "the best government which governs least," and they the happiest people who have delegated the fewest powers to be exercised by others, may in general terms be affirmed. To say that the world has been too much governed, is to say that it has been badly governed—since each additional restraint, beyond what is absolutely necessary, constitutes an additional link in the chain of oppression. Simplicity and precision are the perfection of all laws. Call it democracy or despotism, that government is a tyranny which delights in weaving the legislative web to entangle its subjects. The most powerful, as the Greek philosopher held, are sure to break the web—the weaker only struggle in its folds.

In the promotion of public wealth or the public welfare, all that in reality is required from government, is such a system of legislation as will effectually protect the citizens from wrongs and outrages upon their persons or property, abroad or at home.* The conservation of life, liberty and property is everything. We say *conservation*, which supposes the citizen first to be in possession. Government has nothing to give. Every act of giving, on its part, is a mere act of transfer from one to another, leading often to partiality, always to injustice. The subjects of a government are all upon an equal footing, a condition at war with the idea that *special* benefits may be conferred upon any. If government cannot give, it cannot take away, except for offenses which are *previously* determined.

Ignorant, indolent or bad men, will always be clamorous for support from the public crib, since it is congenial to them that others should be taxed for their support. There are more paupers in every country than can be found upon the poor list or in the work houses. Were the

*Mr. Hume says, "The whole paraphernalia of commons, lords, army, navy, judges, kind, is for the just end of bringing twelve honest men into the jury box."

truth known, the latter class might be found far less detrimental to public prosperity, though both equally prey upon their fellows. These reap where they have not sown. Like Ishmael of old, their hands are turned against all men—and would to God the hands of all men were turned against them.

Were not Hercules's stout shoulders near at hand, it would be seen how well at a pinch the wagoner could help himself. Men never mistake, in private affairs, very widely, or for any time, their true interests, *if left to themselves*. They may safely be intrusted with their own affairs. In the conflict of various and opposing interests, they become accute enough. A perfect immunity to act as it best pleases them in all matters, so that wrong be not done to others or to the community, is the golden rule of liberty as of economy!

But then, as in physic, from ignorance of the nature of the malady which afflicts him, the patient will never think himself likely to do well, unless learned prescriptions are administered. The doctor finds it to his policy to gratify the caprice by applications which are innocent of all effect. In this, he is more likely to succeed than the political charlatan in the same circumstances, who has not at hand so many innocent appliances; yet, something he must do, and that speedily. In the revolutions of fortune's wheel, thousands and thousands are at the bottom. They have been left there by their indolence, by their profligacy, by their vices, or, it may be, by inexplicable fate; no matter, they are there. The more successful, come soon to be regarded with envy and with hatred. Even virtuous success gives no pleasure, and is a standing reproach to adversity. Shall we wonder that these tens of thousands raise the cry of *oppression*, that they have hearers ever ready to make capital in their advocacy, and that wise and prudent men find it necessary to make some show of assistance, when they often know such assistance, in reality, out of their power. Whomsoever, says an old philosopher, that goeth about to persuade men they are not so well governed as they might be, will not want for ready and attentive listeners. It is easier to attribute the misery which is suffered to the government, than to the fault of the sufferers, though government, in truth, have nothing to do with it. It is much more convenient to look for relief from this quarter, than from the man's own exertions. Hence is it, there must be a *law* of some sort or another—and a new law is thereupon made. Most of the agrarianism and Socialism and Fourierism of the world has its origin in this discontent with the *natural state of things*. It is more complimentary to our pride to be governed by our own laws and systems, than by those which are merely of nature.

It is natural, and, if natural, proper—though we may not see the reason, that poverty, and want, and disease, and misery, should be the next door neighbor of wealth and unbounded prosperity. The towers of the palace cast their shadows down upon the roofless hovel, as naturally as the mountains do upon the neighboring hills. Yet that nobleman has not oppressed that beggar. He may, indeed, be liberal, and generous, and just, and mourn over the misery all the wealth in the world could not relieve. Nor is the beggar a victim of society and its laws. Without that society, or those laws, he had not existed—he could not exist with the same security—his fathers before him had not prospered (for generations of misery in the same household is scarcely a supposable case), and his children would have no hope. Exclaim against nature, that she has sent you in the world half finished, maimed, diseased, imbecile, an idiot—that you was born under the frozen serpent of the North, and must struggle against tumbling icebergs, or in the death-dealing breath of torrid suns: but limit not your complaints to these. In evincing her partiality in these respects, has she proclaimed an impartiality in every other? Is it not equally an outrage upon your rights, your equality, that your neighbor is taller, or stouter, better favored, more intellectual—or that he has broader acres, greater possessions and more comforts? All the governments in the world could not prevent these distinctions. The worst government only would attempt it—for, in the effort, how much injustice and wrong must be done to those who, to say the least of it, have as much right to their possessions, however earned, as you have to take them away. The remedy is within yourself. It is for you to apply it. Be industrious, be frugal, be circumspect; if these remove not the evil, you have a claim upon the *benevolence*, not the *justice*, of your fellows. Sue, but not demand. If this benvolence fail, you are simply another victim of that inexplicable, yet, as we ought to believe, wise Providence, which strikes down without reason or explanation, and teaches the utter nothingness of man by her frequent indifference to his fate.*

Nor let us be charged with indifference to the miseries of poverty and destitution, which in all countries afflict society, though in different degrees. The poor must be fed, the miserable must be relieved, or humanity ceases to perform her noble mission. Send them not to government—call not for poor laws and public work houses. We are willing to leave man in the hands of his fellow man. The Samaritan will pass by. The fallen brother will be taken to the bosom. O, we have faith in humanity—it is a gentle, sylvan stream, which flows undeviating in

* See the admirable satire in Juvenal, upon man's complaints about fortune—the sixth, we believe.

its course, refreshing the thorniest places. It has a universal language. "I am a man," is an appeal which is heard in the deserts of Africa, in the wilds of Siberia, and respected. Man ceases to be the enemy to his fellow man, when that fellow has fallen. "Noble spirits war not with the dead." Private charity can relieve all the sufferings that public charity can, and more. Its operations are more effectual, for they are nearer the subject; and, when properly organized, are more discriminating—securing higher comfort at the same cost, with enhanced satisfaction to the donors, and less of that shame which is inseparable from a sense of dependence. A proud spirit might die, rather than take to the public work house—though well administered relief from friends would not be refused. A base spirit could not so well deceive individuals as the public, in regard to alleged wants and sufferings. Leave these things to society and they will be attended. We shall have benevolent associations multiplying, kindness and generosity promoted, as well as enterprise and industry. In regard to these associations, how immensely superior is the present to any subsequent period. Scarcely a man but what is connected with some of them, and contributes to their support. Under whatever name they appear, they are all noble, and proclaim the great laws of sympathy which pervades the universe. When government comes to be a *benefactor*, it is too often a robber—dispensing in charity, and for the relief of conscience, its ill-gotten gains.

Having thus taken the extreme case, in which, if any, government might be held bound to legislate for the benefit of particular classes, and proved, that not only does no such power exist, but that its exercise, if existing, would be impolitic, less effectual, more costly, than individuals and society left to themselves would find it, little difficulty can be found in all those other cases, and they are innumerable, where men are clamorous to have their peculiar conditions benefited by *special* laws, their wealth increased, or their plans and enterprises promoted.

And, to say the truth, these latter calls, time immemorial, have been more frequent than the former, and, from their nature and the character of the persons making them, more likely to be heard. The agriculturist, the manufacturer, the merchant, have left their farms, their work shops and their counting houses, and essayed the far readier mode of acquiring wealth to be had from Westminster Hall or on the floors of Congress. We shall take occasion to enumerate some of their labors and the results, in a general sketch of the interference of governments with industry, in all countries, from the earliest times to the present. From these, more instruction can be derived than from any

philosophical disquisition. We shall then see the true secret of national wealth and prosperity, and in what it consists.

Agriculture, being prior, in time, to the other arts and pursuits, and, as it were, the mother of them all, we naturally begin with it. Always held in honor, it has been self-sustaining and, with unimportant exceptions, self-reliant. The tillers of the earth have been content with the bread it yielded to honest toil. Monsieur Quesnai, in the reign of Louis XIV, did, indeed, attempt to teach them that they, of all men, deserved the special favor of government, in that they were the only *real* producers of wealth. An exemption from taxation was, naturally, one of these favors; and, with such a theory, it was not hard to make the farmers the pet children of legislation. The splendid fallacy of this great Frenchman exercised, for some time, a high and controlling influence, as may be marked in many of the events which followed, and which has not yet, perhaps, been entirely dissipated. The famous corn-law controversies, which agitated Great Britain for the last century, is a result of the favor claimed for the agriculturist. To multiply bread, the nation has, at one time, forbid its *exportation*, and, at at another, its *importation*—undoing in one reign or parliament the work of another, and vascillating between both extremes. They have not legislated the nation, however, out of famines, or the chance of famines, and nothing more clearly demonstrates the *inutility* of such legislation, to say the least of it, than this, that the very *opposite* courses have been adopted or advocated, at different times, *to secure the same ends*. It has been even thought, that the product of bread might be stimulated by bounties, as though the appetite and natural wants of man were not sufficient stimulous for every purpose. An artificial or legal bounty, presupposes that there is no natural one, and, consequently, no existing want. A natural bounty is that reward which a producer receives for the labor expended upon a commodity *in demand*. If no such sufficient bounty be afforded, there is, really, no sufficient demand; and in this case the commodity ought not to be produced. The farmers, too, are frequently admonished of the value and importance of the *home market* for their grains, as if there were, in reality, any other market. Every bushel of wheat or potatoes, every blade of corn, rye or rice, made in America, or in any other country, excepting, perhaps, Ireland, is consumed in it. Not in bread and puddings, altogether, yet, certainly, for the most part—but in cottons, broad cloths, silks or wines, or whatever else it is converted into. Though a peck of corn satisfy my natural wants for a week, yet, in one sense, I consume a bushel or more daily. It appears in my coat, my hat and my boots, for which it has been exchanged. Or, if it be

said, our pregnant grain crops are not consumed at home—pray, tell us where they are consumed? Do we toil, that others may reap the harvest—and become the hewers of wood and drawers of water, for the world at large? Far otherwise the Yankee character. What our fields produce, we enjoy—and sometimes a little more, by running in debt to foreigners.

But, to do the agriculturists justice, they have not been very noisy applicants for government patronage, in comparison with others; since, as Adam Smith remarks, farmers and country gentlemen, dispersed in different parts of the country, cannot so easily combine as merchants and manufacturers, who, being collected in towns, and accustomed to that exclusive corporation spirit which prevails in them, naturally endeavor to obtain, against all their countrymen, the same exclusive privilege which they generally possess against the inhabitants of their respective towns.*

The question of *manufactures*, as another great branch of industry in flourishing nations, presents itself next. Capitalists have, in almost every country, conceived the chances of success but slim and problematical, in this field, without the arm of government for a shield. If a nation must be fed, it must be clothed; and in the elements of heat and cold there are no sufficient stimulants for the production of this clothing! The *exportation* of the raw, unwrought material was made, by the statutes of England, felony, and its *importation*, from every quarter, encouraged, even by bounties. It would not be difficult to enumerate the various measures which have been adopted in favor of the manufacturers, in enabling them to compete, as it is claimed, successfully with foreign competitors. But we have not the time now.

The *merchants* have been the last important order to grow up in the world. Ignorance of navigation, and the barbarous systems of international law which converted foreigners into slaves, stifled the commercial spirit of antiquity. Trade was held in disrepute both in Athens and at Rome. The Romans *prohibited* it with barbarians. After the fall of the Roman Empire and on the growth of the feudal system, all industry naturally declined and commerce was out of the question. The discovery of the western world began a new era. The colonial systems had their origin now, and came soon to be curiously elaborated. The object of these was to build up the commerce of each State at any and every expense. The merchants of each community

* The Louisiana planters have received small share of government favor. The cotton lords and iron lords of the North, have no objection to any amount of aid; but then, when you come to sugar, why, they tell you, "that is one of the necessaries of life—you must not tax that; no, nor tea, either, nor coffee."

were supposed to be naturally at war with those of every other. Their jealousies and rivalries were extreme. Reciprocity was impossible. All of them appealed to their respective governments for aid and protection against each other, and it became universally popular to grant such aid.

It would take a volume to enumerate all the laws that have been passed in support of the merchant interests of the world. The course of Britain and her colonies would come under particular and minute examination. For the encouragement of a particular interest, measures the most preposterous have been adopted by her, and injurious, in the last degree, to the nation at large. "The tariff or customs of England," remarked Mr. Montesquieu, "are very unsettled; with respect to other nations, they are changed, in some measure, with every parliament, either by taking off particular duties or by imposing new ones. They endeavor, by this means, still to preserve their independence. Supremely jealous with respect to trade, they bind themselves but little by treaties and depend only upon their own laws. Other nations have made the interests of commerce yield to that of politics—the English, on the contrary, have always made their political interests give way to those of commerce. They know better than any other people upon earth how to value, at the same time, these three great advantages—religion, commerce and liberty."

In regard to France and Spain, and the other great commercial powers of the old world, the measure of injustice has been heaped up to overflowing. Mr. Burke, indeed, spoke of the colonial system of France as the perfection of administrative wisdom—though it is thought he was more dazzled by the *results*, which, in such productive regions, were brilliant *in spite of* every evil influence. The system was held up by enormous taxation at home, and very light taxation in the colonies. That the colonial policy of France was the most injudicious and expensive that could have been conceived, with regard to the people of France, and almost the worst that could have been planned for the retention of the colonies, is amply proved by facts.*

Old Spain seemed to have determined to make the most of the new world, of which she had by far the most prolific and extensive portion. The perfection of restrictions, established by her for the benefit of particular classes, has long ago met with its appropriate reward, in the ruin of every class. She built up exclusive commercial companies in Cadiz and at Seville, the most magnificent of the age, and these merchant princes, in their unparalleled profits, sapped the very life blood of the nation.

* McGreggor's Progress of America, book viii, chap. 1.

"Spain," we quote again from McGreggor, "with absurd regulations which embarrassed and ruined her colonial commerce, was unable to export or manufacture the raw products of her vast colonies, and would neither permit them to be exported or manufactured by the colonists—nor suffer foreigners to export them and give in exchange to the colonists those articles that they most wanted. A contraband trade necessarily arose, and this illicit trade reduced the price of the products of those colonies to a wretched rate, as their sale depended upon an uncertain arrival of a greater or less number of smuggling vessels, etc. Spanish colonial commerce and agriculture constantly languished; yet, some colossal fortunes were acquired in two or three years by generals, intendants and commissioners of customs."*

In the United States, the merchants have frequently complained that, in the administration of government favors, they have been overlooked. Certain it is, they have not been conceived in need of the same kind of countenance that other interests were thought to demand. There are few instances that can be pointed to, where we have made any special efforts to build up particular classes of commerce, unless the general theoretical favor shown to the *home trade* be an exception. No particular benefits have been intended or conferred, and the aids extended have rather been the legitimate ones of treaty regulations and consular missions. Though a great commercial nation, we seem to have been more solicitous to build up manufactures. It is not so clear, however, if we have not specially benefited, that we have not sometimes specially injured, commerce, by our legislation.

Under the three great heads of agriculture, commerce and manufactures, all the direct interferences with the industry of a people, on the part of their rulers, might strictly be classed. We have aimed at a mere general enumeration, without regarding those important interferences of "trades unions," and apprentice associations, and strict corporations, which, after the downfall of the feudal system, began to grow up in the then forming towns of Europe. They have not yet ceased to exist, and our most respectable mechanics will, even now, admonish you of the importance of close corporations of particular tradesmen, for the purpose of securing adequate or high wages, and for putting down the oppressions of crushing capitalists and unlicensed competition. All such measures belong to the one great, but erroneous system, which supposes industry and enterprise *impotent* in defending themselves, and incapable of marching onward to prosperity when left in the most perfect freedom.

---

* McGreggor's Progress of America, book vii, chap. 1.

Government, we should take it as an axiom, was never a creator of wealth since the world was known. It can never produce two blades of grass where but one grew before. It may take, and does take—often rightfully, but more frequently unrighteously—money out of the pockets of the people, rather than put any in. It is but the creature of men—supported by their contributions, guaranteed by their necessities, and ceases to exist at whatever moment they will it. Men have formed themselves into political unions for protection and defense. They have required a shield, and not a sword. They have seen the importance of submitting to some privations of national liberty for the sake of greater benefits. These benefits are called regulated freedom; and all unnecessary legislation must be repealed—since, if it can be proved a law does no good, it necessarily does harm! Would that an enlightened political economy could teach the rulers of the world to have an unlimited confidence in the elasticity, in the potency, of industry—unfettered, uncontrolled, free—in the production of national wealth and prosperity, and an unlimited *distrust* of their own powers of directing, establishing or promoting, this industry.*

When it is asked: Which have been the most prosperous countries in the world? it must be answered (other things being equal, or, even often, very far from equal)—*the freest.* In a despotic country, men will not aim to accumulate, but rather to hoard what they have. There can be no enterprise, if an arbitrary government may interfere in its results and appropriate them to itself, either by extraordinary taxation, or—as in Turkey and Russia, and many eastern countries—by cunningly devised laws, or even by open violence. Remove the securities and bulwarks of property, and it ceases to be valuable. The interest of the slave, the serf or the villain, is to squander what he has rather than to add to it. Hence, the low state of industry, where men find themselves in this condition.

It is not difficult to determine the true sources of national prosperity, though the most egregious errors have been made in doing it. Why has one nation advanced forward to wealth and power, while another—and a neighbor—has remained stationary or declined? How can the extraordinary progress of the United States, within the short period of its history, unparalleled in the annals of man, be accounted for upon satisfactory principles?

We answer, without qualification, the industry of this country—though the exceptions are not few or unimportant—has, in every period,

* If we seem trenching upon party ground, the reader will give us credit for fairness in having published, several months ago, a very strong article in our pages, advocating the protective system.

been FREE. Without this, it were in vain an empire of wealth lay buried in the bosom of the continent awaiting the hand to develop it. There would be no such hand, as Spanish America has shown.

We say, her industry has been free, which supposes a legitimate, sound and liberal government, multiplying, in no instance, restraints, without an honest conviction they are for the public weal. The error, of policy, once clearly pointed out, has almost always been followed immediately by its removal, if not in whole, yet, in part. One may hope for such a country an ultimate perfection, from the constant application of the principles of a sound political system.

But this will not be to say every thing, though it be much, that our country is *free*. The people, themselves, who are to prosper from freedom, must be an industrious and an enterprising people. The African, when released from the dominion of a master, becomes the double slave of indolence and want. As much depends upon *races* as upon political institutions. The United States have been peopled by the Anglo Saxon, whose indomitable spirit is broken by no toil nor labor, and whose enterprise and activity are baffled by no combination of difficulties, dangers and obstructions. This has been the ruling element of our population, and the other elements have gradually assimilated themselves to it. The Spaniards inhabited a garden spot at home, and they sought a paradise in America, at a time their northern neighbors were struggling with icebergs; a prolific soil yielded them wealth, with only the labor of taking it away. Yet, where is the empire which this people have established upon the American continent?

There must be a free government and an enterprising people; but there must, also, be a soil, climate and country, favorable enough and extensive enough to operate upon. In these, the United States have been signally blessed. Our climate is adapted to every branch of industry and enterprise. We include the ice factors of New England, the fur catchers of Oregon, the sugar and cotton growers of Florida and Texas, and all the elaborations employed upon their products. Without so various, and yet so advantageous, a distribution of climate, a nation could not thus advance. In the regions of Siberia, or upon the equatorial line, the Anglo Saxon, with all his free laws, had done but little. Though the climate, too, be as favorable as Italy and as genial as Switzerland, and the soil rocky, sterile or exhausted, the results would again have been different. Our soil is virgin, prolific almost in *spontaneous* products. And yet, because of such a soil, and without our other advantages, Ireland has been hopelessly beggared! Finally, the country must be capacious and susceptible of indefinite extension: and what country like ours, in this respect? Fancy the original thir-

teen States to contain *all* the territory over which our population could ever have spread. Yet Russia has a territory as unlimited as ours, and Brazil one very nearly so.

All of these conditions must be combined to make a great and a flourishing people. No one of them, singly, can do it.

It is not that emigrants have been pouring in upon us from all the world—that we have been prolific and augmenting, in an uncommon ratio, by natural means—that any boast is now made. Mere population is, in itself, no element of prosperity and wealth. A declining country may continually grow more populous, and a ruined one—as we have seen a notable instance of, in Ireland—may stock the world with its swarms of emigrants, and yet augment, each year, its *home* population. Population *often* comes when it is *not* wanted, and where it is not wanted. It *never ceases* to come where it *is* wanted. Legislators need never stimulate it. In all old countries its increase should be restrained, rather than encouraged. In new countries it will augment as fast—taking long periods into consideration—as it is wanted, and in obedience to its own peculiar laws.

Though the United States had double its present population, it does not follow there would be double the wealth and prosperity. Certainly, a tenfold augmentation of population, would not be followed by a tenfold prosperity. Numbers and population are but an item, and the least important one, in estimating a nation's position and power in the world. The best population may not exist in just proportion to the means of support, and national decline ensues. It is sufficient here to remark, with Malthus, "That a permanent increase of population is a powerful and necessary element of increasing demand, will be most readily allowed; but that the increase of population alone, or, more properly, the pressure of the population hard against the limits of subsistence, does not furnish an effective stimulus to the continued increase of wealth, is not only evident in theory, but is confirmed by universal experience. It is obvious, then, in theory, that an increase of population, when an additional quantity of labor is not wanted, will soon be checked by want of employment and the scanty support of those employed, and will not furnish the required stimulus to an increase of wealth, proportioned to the power of production."

Having shown the intimate relationship subsisting between political economy and government, and how the doctrines of the one should influence the action of the other, and the two combined the industry and prosperity of a nation, but little can remain to be said.

Every circumstance, we have seen, which can give intensity to the laws of natural progress, have been constantly in operation in the Uni-

ted States, throughout every period of its history, and remains till in undiminished force. Let us be content with the results which have been achieved, and which as clearly indicate others, yet more brilliant, in the future. The industry of our people needs no monitors, as to its best mode of application under every possible circumstance—and, least of all, monitors made out of such stuff as our politicians usually are. As intelligence is generally diffused throughout the masses, they will perceive and admit this, and the one cry, which will every where be heard, remain evermore, "*let us alone.*"

Diffuse, then, knowledge everywhere, throughout the length and breadth of this great country—multiply the means of information—send the schoolmaster into every hovel—dot every hill with the school house or the college—let the press, without intermission, night and day, pour forth its steady streams of light—foster science and the arts—let the civilizing and godlike influences of machinery uninteruptedly extend—then will the future of our country, open, boundless and great, beyond all example, beyond all compare, and countless ages bless its mission and acknowledge its glorious dominion.

ART. II.—THE BARON HUMBOLDT'S "COSMOS."—Part 2.

THE reader and the admirer of Humboldt, whom we shall regard as one and the same person, will, doubtless, be surprised at the extraordinary transition from the first to the second volume of "Cosmos." The subjects treated, and, indeed, the mode of treating them, in some respects, are totally different. Whether, in the second effort, he has sustained the character won in the first, and whether the transition is natural and warranted by the expectations provoked in the first, will, we venture to say, depend very much on the patience, taste and range of acquirements, of the reader.

The first volume relates to the laws and phenomena of the material world, the second relates to mental development in a certain line; the first is physical, the second metaphysical; the first scientific, the second critical and historical; the first deserves its title, and none other would suit it; the second would be just as true under the title of a "historical and critical analysis of mental development in the contemplation of nature." We shall not offer a new title page to the philosopher of half a century's renown, but merely say what we should guess, for a title page, had we read the second volume without previous impressions; and, with this prefix, it seems to us, any reader would have

higher enjoyment, and yield the work a stronger plaudit, than it is certain to receive as a continuation of the Cosmos, which has been several years on our shelves.

Few of his readers are philosophers, and those who are entitled to such a distinction, are rarely acquainted with every branch of science and art; and the taste for natural and exact science is so rarely coupled with a genius for letters, and a competent knowledge of philosophy and ethics, that one-half of the readers of Cosmos will skim over the second volume with a faint approval, or no approval at all. It travels quite out of the range of most physical philosophers; and the metaphysical and historical student, having never heard of the labors of Baron Von Humboldt, in his field of research, will not be prompted by the name of his book, or his past reputation, to open the Cosmos.

Still he who shall have the time and the proper taste, for this second volume, will find the labors of the venerable octogenarian have done him little less credit there than in the fields of his former celebrity.

What library has not Alexander Humboldt ransacked? What work of travels, history, science or art, is unknown to, or unread by him? Many an author, little known when he lived, and totally forgotten in the dusty shelves of the middle centuries, has been kindly exhumed, and brought into the society of the nineteenth century, and placed side by side, to his utter astonishment, with those who fill the world with the eclat of their present fame. Who of us ever heard that there once lived a poet named Angilbertus, or a navigator named Fratelli Zeni, or his biographer Marcolni?

But let us present specimens, showing, somewhat, the line and character of the second volume of the Cosmos:

"In order to depict nature, in its exalted sublimity, we must not dwell exclusively on its external manifestations, but we must trace its images, reflected in the mind of man, at one time filling the dreamy land of physical myths with forms of grace and beauty, and, at another time, developing the germ of artistic creations.

"In limiting myself to the simple consideration of incitements to a scientific study of nature, I would not, however, omit calling attention to the fact, that impressions arising from apparently accidental circumstances, often, as is repeatedly confirmed by experience, exercise so powerful an effect on the youthful mind, as to determine the whole direction of man's character and career through life."

After mentioning the study of maps and travels, as giving him his propensity for travel and widely extended observation, he adds that "these objects, here instanced, by way of illustration, belong to three classes of inducements to the study of nature, viz.: the description of nature, when springing from an animated impression of terrestrial forms; the delineative art of landscape painting, and the direct objec

tive consideration of the distinctive features of natural forms. The power exercised by these incitements is, however, limited to the sphere embraced by modern cultivation, and to those individuals, whose minds have been rendered more susceptible to impressions, by a peculiar disposition, fostered, by some special direction, in the development of their mental activity."

After these preliminary intimations, Humboldt gives his sanction to the opinion, that "though the enjoyment, derived from the contemplation of nature, was not wholly unknown to the ancients, the feeling was, nevertheless, much more rarely, and less vividly, expressed, than in modern times." And his subsequent analysis of the history of the development of the idea of the beautiful and the harmonious in nature well sustains the opinion. And we rely upon this very fact, as a strong argument in favor of modern refinement and mental cultivation over the ancient. The comparisons, made by many lovers of antiquarian research, and champions of ancient enlightenment, are usually made in the dark, or based upon imaginary inferences. Humboldt has put the matter to the test, and, I think, settled the question. The Greeks, with the highest cultivation of letters, art and poetry, known to ancient times, seem to have been quite without a knowledge of the description of natural beauty as a branch of poetic literature.

"The landscape appears among them, merely as the back-ground of the picture, of which human figures constitute the main subject. Passions, breaking forth in action, riveted their attention almost exclusively. An active life, spent chiefly in public, drew the minds of men from dwelling with enthusiastic exclusiveness on the silent workings of nature, and led them, always, to consider physical phenomena as having reference to mankind, whether in the relations of external conformation or of internal development. It was almost exclusively under such relations, that the consideration of nature was deemed worthy of being admitted into the domain of poetry, under the fantastic form of comparisons, which often present small detached pictures, replete with *objective* truthfulness.

"At Delphi, pæans to spring were sung, being intended, probably, to express the delights of man, at the termination of the discomforts of winter. A natural description of winter is interwoven (perhaps by the hand of some Ionian rhapsodist) in the works and days of Hesiod. This poem, which is composed with noble simplicity, although in accordance with the rigid didactic form, gives instructions regarding agriculture, directions for different kinds of trades and labor, and ethic precepts for a blameless course of life. It is only elevated to the dignity of a lyric poem, when the poet clothes the miseries of mankind, or the exquisite mythical allegory of Epimetheus and Pandora, in an anthropomorphic garb. In the Theogony of Hesiod, which is composed of many ancient and dissimilar elements, we frequently find, as, for instance, in the enumeration of the Nereides, natural descriptions of the realm of Neptune, concealed under the significant names of

mythical characters. The Bœotian, and, indeed, all the ancient schools of poetry, treat only of the phenomena of the external world, under the personification of human forms."

It is obvious, from this extract, that the scope of this volume of the Cosmos is very wide; for, if literature is to be scanned from the time of Hesiod to Chalmers for material, the task must be elaborate: but, when literature, science, mythology and history, each has to unbosom itself and render its tribute, the labor of the author seems prodigious; and he seems to have laid a master's hand wherever he has touched. We shall leap to an advanced page for another extract:

"We are indebted to modern cultivation for a constantly advancing enlargement of our field of view, an increasing accumulation of ideas and feelings, and the powerful influence of their mutual reaction.

"Without leaving the land of our birth, we not only learn to know how the earth's surface is fashioned, in the remotest zones, and by what animal and vegetable forms it is occupied, but we may even hope to have delineations presented to us, which shall vividly reflect, in some degree, at least, the impressions conveyed by the aspect of external nature to the inhabitants of those distant regions.

"To satisfy this demand, to comply with a requirement that may be termed a species of intellectual enjoyment wholly unknown to antiquity, is an object for which modern times are striving; and it is an object which will be crowned with success, since it is the common work of all civilized nations, and because the greater perfection of the means of communication, by sea and land, renders the whole earth more accessible, and facilitates the comparison of the most widely separated parts."

These are substantial reasons for the position we have assumed, for the superiority of modern over ancient cultivation and refinement.

The following paragraph would be better suited to the pen of a Burke, or a Blair, than that of a philosopher in physics—the diffuseness of the translator being deducted:

"Descriptions of nature, I would again observe, may be defined with sufficient justness and scientific accuracy, without, on that account, being deprived of the vivifying breath of imagination. The poetic element must emanate from the intuitive perception of the connection between the sensuous and the intellectual, and of the universality, and reciprocal limitation and unity, of all the vital forces of nature. The more elevated the subject, the more carefully should all external adornments of diction be avoided. The true effect of a picture of nature depends on its composition; every attempt at an artificial appeal from the author, must, therefore, necessarily exert a disturbing influence.

"He who, familiar with the great works of antiquity, and secure in the possession of the riches of his native language, knows how to represent, with the simplicity of individualizing truth, that which he hath received from his own contemplation, will not fail in producing the im-

pression he seeks to convey; for, in describing the boundlessness of nature, and not the limited circuit of his own mind, he is enabled to leave to others unfettered freedom of feeling."

But if the second volume of the Cosmos has carried us far beyond the taste and appreciation of most scientific readers, we are left to hope that the third volume, which is to complete the series, and end the earthly labors of the illustrious savan of three-score years' celebrity, will bring the richest, highest enjoyment of all. We shall look for it with lively interest, and, when it comes, do more for it than we can boast for this; that is, read it entirely through. Hear what the author says of its scope:

"The third and last portion of my work will, for the better elucidation of the general picture of nature, set forth those results of observation on which the present condition of scientific opinions is principally based. Much that, according to other views than mine regarding the composition of a book of nature, may have appeared wanting, will there find its place.

"Excited by the brilliant manifestation of new discoveries, and nourishing hopes, the fallacy of which continues long undetected, each age dreams that it has approximated closely to the culminating point of the recognition and comprehension of nature. I doubt whether, on serious reflection, such a belief would tend to heighten the enjoyment of the present.

"A more animating conviction, and one more consonant with the destiny of our race, is, that the conquests already achieved constitute only a very inconsiderable portion of those to which free humanity will attain, in future ages, by the progress of mental activity and general cultivation."

These are the views of the true philosopher. The solution of a truth in nature, before unknown, is no ultimate solution. It is but one step of progress in knowledge, and often substitutes two truths for the mystery solved. It is not likely that mere finite mortals are to master what sprang from the infinite wisdom of God. When we shall have accomplished this (if ever), then shall we really be as Gods. What another life may furnish the human soul, for its demands, we are not informed; but, in this life, that will, doubtless, be the greatest blessing, which insures, to both mind and body, no exhaustion of the supplies necessary to its subsistence and enjoyment. With the author of the Cosmos, we pray that the last mysteries of the natural world may never be revealed to man.

ART. III.—GOVERNMENT OF BRITISH INDIA.

LOCAL GOVERNMENT; ECCLESIASTICAL; LEGISLATIVE; JUDICIAL; MILITARY, FISCAL AND POLITICAL STATE.*

THE number and constitution of the Company's courts are constantly changing; for, as the system for the administration of justice to the natives is grossly imperfect and inefficient, every successive governor-general seeks to improve it. What is true, therefore, of one period may not be true of another, and what is true of one presidency is not generally true of the others. The system is worst under the Madras presidency, where few native judges are employed, and those few little trusted; and it is most efficient under the Bombay presidency, where almost all original civil suits have been tried before native judges for a period of about twenty years, their decisions, however, being subject to appeal to European judges. The same system has been extensively introduced into the Bengal presidency within the last fifteen years, and with similar great success. The following is an outline of the system in the provinces of Bengal and Behar, to which the system of the north-western provinces and of the Bombay presidency nearly corresponds. Bengal and Behar are divided into twenty-five districts, and in each district there are three classes of native judges. The lowest and most numerous class, amounting to six, twelve, and even sometimes eighteen distributed through one district, have jurisdiction in suits for an amount not exceeding three hundred rupees ($150). The next class, of whom there are not more than two, sometimes only one, in one district, have jurisdiction in suits for an amount not exceeding one thousand rupees ($500). And the third class, of whom there are three, two, and sometimes only one, in one district, have jurisdiction in suits for an amount not exceeding five thousand rupees ($2,500). No peculiar requirements are looked for in a native judge beyond general good character, respectability of family, and a competent knowledge of the Persian and Bengalee languages. No liberal or polite education, no legal acquirements, no knowledge even of the general forms and rules of practice prescribed by the regulations of the Indian government, are generally possessed by any candidate for office. The decisions of the lowest class of these native judges of the district, of whom there are sometimes three, sometimes two, but generally only one in each district. If on appeal a decision is affirmed, it is final; but, if reversed, it is again appealable to the Company's Superior Court of Appeal in Calcutta, consisting generally of eight or nine judges, each sitting separately, and dividing amongst them the numerous appealed cases. If the sum litigated is not less than ten thousand rupees ($5,000), the decision of the superior court is also appealable to the judicial committee of the Privy Council in England. The English appeal judges, in India, are equally, with the native judges, destitute of a legal education, except that which is acquired by practice and reading. In suits regarding succession, inheritance, marriage, caste and all religious usages and in-

* Concluded from August Number.

stitutions, the laws professedly administered are those of Hindoos to Hindoos, and those of Mohammedans to Mohammedans; but not in suits regarding contracts, which are interpreted according to principles laid down in the regulations and acts of the British India government. In suits between Mohammedans and Hindoos, the law of the defendant is always followed.

For the administration of criminal justice, there is in every district an English police magistrate, under whom the district is divided into smaller parts, varying from twelve to eighteen in each, of which there is a native superintendent of police, with subordinate officers, who makes daily reports to the magistrate of the state of his division, apprehends offenders and sends them with witnesses to the head station. For certain minor offenses and within certain limits of punishment, they are tried and convicted or acquitted by the magistrate. For higher offenses, they are committed by the magistrate for trial before the Session Judge, which office is discharged by the same individual who has been already mentioned as the English District Judge of Appeal in civil suits. As Session Judge, he holds monthly sessions for the trial of persons committed by the magistrate, and his sentences are revised, and either affirmed or annulled, by the Superior Criminal Court in Calcutta, which consists of the same judges who constitute the Superior Court of Appeal in civil suits. There is also a general superintendent of police for the two provinces of Bengal and Behar, who travels over the country and reports the condition of each district to government, awakening the zeal of magistrates and their subordinate officers, and suggesting such improved arrangements as may lead to the suppression of crime. The law administered is the Mohammedan criminal law, both for Hindoos and Mohammedans, adopted by the English from their Mohammedan predecessors, but very essentially mitigated in some of its harsh and sanguinary provisions.

In 1834, a law commission was issued to certain persons, five in number, recommended by the Court of Directors, with the approbation of the Board of Control, directing and empowering them to inquire into the jurisdiction, powers and rules of existing courts and police establishments throughout India, and into the forms of judicial procedure and the nature and operation of the laws, civil, criminal, written or customary; to report results and to suggest alterations—regard being had to the caste, religion, manners and opinions, among different races and in different parts. The only important result that has followed the labors of these commissioners, is the preparation and recommendation of a penal code for all India, which, however, as far as is known, has not yet been adopted. No modification of the civil law or the law of procedure has been effected.

Corresponding with the territorial divison into presidencies, there are three armies in British India—the Bengal army, the Madras army and the Bombay army—separately organized, officered and commanded, and subject, in many respects, to different rules and regulations. The commander-in-chief of the Bengal army, is also commander-in-chief of all the three armies. When the governor-general of India belongs to the military profession, he may also be the commander-in-chief of all the armies of India; but, when he is a civilian, the latter

office is held by a separate individual, who may then also become an extraordinary member of the Supreme Council of India. In like manner, the governor of Madras or of Bombay, if of the military profession, may be the commander-in-chief of the Madras or Bombay forces; but, if the governor is a civilian, then the chief command of the forces is held by a different person, who also becomes a member of the Governor's council. These appointments of commanders-in-chief of the armies of the respective presidencies, and commander-in-chief of all the armies of India, are made by the Court of Directors, subject to the approbation of the crown. From these high offices down to the lowest commissioned offices of ensigns and cadets, the India army is officered by Englishmen who are sent from England for that purpose, and who rise according to seniority and length of service to higher commands. The rank and file of the army in India, is composed of Hindoos of all descriptions—Rajpoots, Mahrattas, Brahmans, Goorkhas, Sikhs—and of Mohammedans, Jews and Christians, that is, native Christians, with different proportions of each in the different armies. The army of Bengal is estimated to be one-eighth or one-tenth Mohammedan, and the rest Hindoo. The armies of Madras and Bombay are about one-third Mohammedan and two-thirds Hindoo. Jews are found only in the Bombay army; and native Christians are employed only in the musical bands attached to regiments. The entire native army of the three presidencies consists of about 120,000 troops, composed of twenty-one regiments of cavalry, one hundred and fifty-two regiments of infantry, and two battalions of artillery, to which are to be added 30,000 European troops of all arms, including infantry, horse artillery and foot artillery, besides European and native veteran battalions, provincial corps and irregular horse, of all which no authenticated enumeration is known to exist. The regular army, in various divisions and detachments, in times of peace, garrison forts, or are stationed in military cantonments, all over the country, wherever there is weak point or a turbulent population; or, wherever, for any other reason, a military force may appear requisite. In the language of a writer, in the confidence of the British India government, "In India, a large standing army is absolutely necessary to the existence of the English government. Without it, they would not collect a shilling of revenue from any portion of the country, nor hold its administration for a day." Native Christians are not permitted to enter the rank and file of the army with Hindoos and Mohammedans, although Jews are; and Hindoos and Mohammedans are permitted to rise to the dignity of corporals and sergeants, and of offices corresponding in name, but not in trust, emoluments or rank, with those of ensign and lieutenant held by Englishmen. Beyond that point, all offices of command are held by the conquering race in their own hands.

The ecclesiastical establishment of India, consists of a bishop, an archdeacon and a body of clergy, at each of the three presidencies, of whom the bishop of Calcutta is the metropolitan, and the bishops of Madras and Bombay are suffragan bishops, subject to the metropolitical, visitorial and appellate jurisdiction of the bishop of Calcutta.

The island of Ceylon, although a crown colony, and not subject to

the government of the East India Company, is, from its proximity, included in the diocese of Madras. The clergy in each presidency, were originally appointed as chaplains to garrisons and factories, and such, for the most part, are the duties which they still discharge, being principally attached to the military cantonments, and large civil stations throughout the country. The expense on account of bishops and archdeacons, is limited to 120,000 rupees, or $60,000 per annum, which is exclusive of the pay of the inferior clergy, and the whole expense is paid out of the revenues of India. Parliament has also directed, that, from 1814, a sum of 100,000 rupees or $50,000 per annum, should be employed in promoting the education of the people; and, with such inadequate means, some very feeble, desultory, and ill-directed efforts, have been made with that view.

The fiscal system of the British India government, draws from the country an amount of revenue, varying from 20 to £23,000,000 per annum. The customs, stamps, post office, and other minor sources, yield about £2,000,000 per annum; the salt and opium monopolies yield about £4,500,000; and the remainder is a land tax, or, as the British India government prefers to call it, a land rent—*i. e.*, a rent paid to government, by the tenant, occupier, or cultivator, for the use of the soil. The principle, or theory, on which this tax or rent is exacted, is the same as that which is recognized in the United States, when the general government is considered as the holder and owner of the public lands, for the benefit of the people. The difference is, that here the government parts with this proprietary right, and gives the farmer a fee simple, or absolute right in the land which he cultivates. In India the prince, or the government for the time being, is, and continues to be, the universal proprietor of the soil. All lands pay rent, either to the government or to some person to whom the existing government, or former prince and government, may have assigned it, either for a term of years, or on a life-tenure, or in perpetuity. In the provinces of Bengal and Behar, the English government has voluntarily and permanently limited its own demand for rent; that is, it has agreed never to claim more than it now receives. In the north-western provinces of India, it has more recently limited its demand for rent, for periods of twenty and thirty years, at the end of which periods it may raise its claims. In the chief provinces of the Madras and Bombay presidencies, it makes annual arrangements with the cultivators, and increases or diminishes its demands, from year to year, according to the judgment of its affairs, respecting the ability of the cultivator to pay. In each district there is a collector, or principal revenue officer, always an Englishman, and generally the same who discharges the duties of police magistrate in the district, and under him various subordinate native officers are employed in the collection of revenue. The whole system is as unjust and oppressive, as it is unwise and impolitic.

The political relations of the British India government, are either internal or external. Externally, that government has entered into political relations with Persia—first, to counteract the aggressive policy of France, and subsequently that of Russia; with Cabul, which, from a quiet neighbor, has been exasperated into an irreconcilable enemy;

with Senna, Muscat, and various Arab tribes, and with Abyssinia, Siam, and Acheen, for the promotion of British commerce and the extinction of piracy and the slave trade; and with Nepal and Burmah, both of which have been conquered in war, and stripped of valuable territory. Sinde, an independent State on the north-west frontier of India, with which diplomatic relations previously existed, was recently invaded, vanquished, and absorbed into the British territory. The Punjaub, another independent State, to the north of the British possessions, with which friendly treaties existed, has, for about the last ten years, since the death of Runjut Singh, been in a condition of internal convulsion, which has resulted in the total subjugation of the country by the East India Company's government. The British India government has no permanent diplomatic intercourse with Siam, Cochin China, or China.

In explanation of the internal political relations of the British India government, it must be borne in mind, that, although England has subdued India, she has not yet appropriated the whole. Numerous native States still exist, all acknowledging, by treaty, her paramount authority, and all relinquishing political relations with one another, and with all other States—internal combinations and foreign alliances hostile to English power being thus prevented. The native States may be divided into six classes, according to the nature of the treaties formed with them. The *first* class, consists of five native States, who have treaties offensive and defensive, with the right on their part to claim protection, external and internal, from the British India government, and the right on its part to interfere in their internal affairs. The *second* class, consists of two States, with which there are treaties offensive and defensive, acknowledging the right on their part to claim protection, external and internal, from the British India government, and the aid of its troops to realize their just claims from their own subjects; but no right on its part to interfere in their internal affairs. The *third* class, consists of at least twenty-five States, with which there are treaties, offensive and defensive: they are mostly tributary, acknowledge the supremacy of the British India government, and promise subordinate cooperation; but they are supreme rulers in their own territories. The *fourth* class, includes five States, with which there are treaties of guarantee and protection—promising subordinate coöperation, and securing their supremacy in their own territories. To the *fifth* class belongs only one State, with which there is a treaty of simple amity and friendship. The *sixth* class includes those States, with which there are treaties of protection, with the right on the part of the British India government to control their internal affairs. These native States, in the aggregate, have a revenue of about £12,000,000 per annum. They maintain armies of their own, more or less effective; and most of them are bound by treaty to aid the British India government in time of war, with the whole, or a specified portion of their troops. The total area which their territories embrace, is about 450,000 square miles, while that of the British territories in India, is about 625,000 square miles. The proportion of the entire population of India subject to native States, is probably about one-third, and the remaining two-thirds are under the British government.

Such, is a very imperfect representation of the extraordinary and anomalous system of government, which England has devised for India—a system, the whole end and aim of which is, to keep about one hundred and fifty millions of people in subjection, and to extract from them as much revenue as possible. In spite, however, of the vices of a European despotism, and of an Asiatic people, the seeds of science and learning, religion, morality and freedom, are taking root, and will, ultimately, produce fruit.

ART. IV.—SLAVERY AND THE BIBLE.

[This paper has been handed us for publication, and, as it contains a summary of the Bible argument for slavery, we give it place, though the subject is growing hacknied.—Ed.]

A very large party in the United States believe that holding slaves is morally wrong; this party founds its belief upon precepts taught in the Bible, and takes that book as the standard of morality and religion. We, also, look to the same book as our guide in the same matters; yet, we think it right to hold slaves—do hold them, and have held and used them from childhood.

As we come to such opposite conclusions from the same foundation, it may be well to consider, whether the Bible teaches us anything whatever, in regard to slavery; if so, what is it and how is it taught.

The anti-slavery party maintain, that the Bible teaches nothing *directly* upon the subject, but, that it establishes rules and principles of action, from which they infer, that, in holding slaves, we are guilty of a moral wrong. This mode of reasoning would be perfectly fair, if the Bible really taught nothing directly upon the subject of slavery: but when that book applies the principles it lays down to the particular subject in controversy, we must take the application to be correct. We think we can show, that the Bible teaches clearly and conclusively that the holding of slaves is right; and if so, no deduction from general principles can make it wrong, if that book is true.

From the earliest period of time down to the present moment, slavery has existed in some form or under some name, in almost every country of the globe. It existed in every country known, even by name, to any one of the sacred writers, at the time of his writing; yet no one of them condemns it in the slightest degree. Would this have been the case had it been wrong in itself? would not some one of the host of sacred writers have spoken of this alleged crime, in such terms as to show, in a manner not to be misunderstood, that God wished all men to be equal?

Abraham, the chosen servant of God, had his bond servants, whose condition was similar to, or worse than, that of our slaves. He considered them as his property, to be bought and sold as any other property which he owned. In Genesis xvii, 13, 23, 27, we are told that God commanded Abraham to circumcise all his bond-servants, "*bought with his money*," and that Abraham obeyed God's commandment on that same day. In Genesis xx, 14, we are told that Abimelech took sheep and oxen, and *men servants* and *women servants*, and gave them to Abraham. In chapter xii, verse 14, we are told that Abraham possessed sheep and oxen, and he asses, and men servants and maid servants, and she asses, and camels. Also, in Genesis xxvi, 14, Isaac is said to have had possessions of flocks and herds, and a great store of servants. In other places in Genesis, they are spoken of, but always as property.

Jacob's sons sold Joseph, their brother, to the Ishmaelites for twenty pieces of silver. They agreed with each other that they would sell him, when the Ishmaelites were afar off, and before they could have known that the Ishmaelites would buy him; only they knew, that such sales were common in the country at the time. The narrative of Joseph's life in Egypt, shows that the sale of slaves was common there.

No one can doubt, that Abraham regarded his servants as his property, and that they were so regarded in the country in which he lived. Not only was the bond-servant of Abraham considered his property, but the condition of the bond-servant was hereditary, or his child was a servant. In Genesis xvii, 13, God not only commanded Abraham to circumcise his servants, bought with his money, but also, those born in his house, and those which, at any future time, should be born in his house, or in that of any of his descendants; and in the twenty-third and twenty-seventh verses of the same chapter, we are told that Abraham did circumcise all his male servants, born in his house, on the same day. In chapter xiv of Genesis we are told, that Abraham took three hundred and eighteen trained servants, which had been born in his house, and pursued the kings who had carried off Lot. These three hundred and eighteen servants were born servants.

Let us now see what control Abraham exercised over these servants born in his house and bought with his money. God commanded Abraham to circumcise all his male servants—those born in his house were so numerous, that he had of them three hundred and eighteen men fit for battle. The command was, not that Abraham should use his influence over them and persuade them to be circumcised, but he and all his descendants are commanded to circumcise them—the crime and punishment for a disobedience to this command, were to fall on

him or his descendants. Now, in order that God could have required this from Abraham, with any degree of justice, it was necessary that Abraham should have had both the power over his servants, which was necessary to enable him to do this, and also, that he should have had the legal and moral right to exercise that power.

Circumcision was a requirement, until then, totally unknown. Abraham's servants must have regarded it as a foolish whim of his own. Nothing else could have been considered more degrading to them, or more absurd in him. Yet, no one of all the immense number of his servants, refused to permit the circumcision to be performed. We may well suppose, that Abraham might have required anything else which his fancy dictated, and equally have enforced obedience, if it were not more absurd, painful or degrading.

When Sarai, Abraham's wife, complained to him of the conduct of Hagar, her maid servant, he answered, "thy maid is in thy hand, do to her as it pleaseth thee," showing that she only wanted her husband's consent to punish Hagar as she pleased. We are then told, that, when Sarai dealt hardly with her, she fled from her face into the wilderness—there the angel of the Lord found her; but, instead of relieving her distresses, and sending her to some free country, he told her to return and submit herself to her mistress.

When Abraham pursued Chederlaomer, the king of Elam, he took his three hundred and eighteen servants, and his three friends, Aner, Eschol and Mamre, and recaptured a large amount of property which had been carried away from Sodom. But when the king of Sodom offered him all the property which he had taken, he refused everything, except what his servants had eaten and the portion of his three friends—answering immediately for himself and his servants, and refusing everything, but reserving the right to his friends to answer for themselves.

From the passages which I have recited and referred to, we can obtain some idea of the condition of Abraham's servants. They were property bought and sold for money; their services belonged to him, and was disposed of without their consent. Their condition was hereditary—the master could punish or chastise the slave, and even maim him, at his pleasure. He exercised rights which no southern planter would dare to exercise, and which a southern negro would not submit to.

Abraham was a worshiper of God; he had direct and immediate communication with him. He showed his willingness to obey God's commands, even in offering his only son a sacrifice to God. He is spoken of by all the sacred writers, as one who was selected, from the whole human race, as the father of the faithful. God would not have so highly honored

him, had he been living in constant and habitual violation of his laws: nor would he have required from him the performance of immaterial ceremonies, or of painful things not required by the moral law, and left him ignorantly to continue to violate his duties to his fellow men. Had our abolition friends been in God's stead, they would have certainly acted in a very different manner. Is there one of them who will dare to say, he would have done better than God did?

But God, instead of teaching Abraham, his chosen servant, that it was immoral to use and buy his slaves, demanded from him the performance of certain things, which required that the relation of master and slave should be kept up, not only during Abraham's time, but in all future ages. And when the angel of the Lord interfered between Sarai and Hagar, it was to cause the slave to submit to the punishment inflicted by her mistress. Under like circumstances, our slaves are persuaded to go to Canada.

From what I have written, if it stood alone, I would infer that the holding of slaves was right, in some cases. But this is, by no means, all that is found in the Bible upon the subject. After the Israelites had been a long time in Egypt, they became servants to the Egyptians. At this time, God sent Moses, as a messenger, to bring them out of Egypt. Through Moses, God gave them laws by which they were to be governed. No law which came directly from him (*the fountain of morality*), can be considered morally wrong; it might be imperfect, in not providing for circumstances not then existing—but, so far as it does provide, its provisions are correct. Nothing which God ordained can be a crime, and nothing for which he gave express permission can be considered wrong.

In Leviticus xxv, we are told, that the Lord spake to Moses, saying: "Speak unto the children of Israel, and say unto them"—after various provisions of the law, the 39th verse reads as follows, in regard to servitude: "If thy brother that dwelleth by thee be waxen poor, and be sold unto thee, thou shalt not compel him to serve as a bond-servant, but as an hired servant," &c.—clearly showing that there was a distinction between bond-servant and hired-servant. After providing for the case of a Hebrew servant, verses 44, 45 and 46, of the same law, read as follows: "Both thy bondmen, and thy bondmaids, which thou shalt have, shall be of the heathen that are round about you; of them shall ye buy bondmen and bondmaids. Moreover, of the children of the strangers that do sojourn among you, of them shall ye buy, and of their families that are with you, which they begat in your land: and they shall be your possession. And ye shall take them as an inheritance for your children after you, to inherit them for a possession; they shall be your bondmen *for ever*."

In Exodus xxi, 20, 21, we find this law: "And if a man smite his servant, or his maid, with a rod, and he die under his hand, he shall be surely punished. Notwithstanding, if he continue a day or two, he shall not be punished: for he is his money."

The 26th and 27th verses of the same chapter provide, that if the servant have lost an eye or a tooth, by a blow from the master, the servant should go free.

The 29th, 30th, 31st and 32d verses provide, that if an ox was known to be vicious and killed a freeman, the ox and his owner were both put to death; but if he gored a bond-servant, the ox should be killed and the master should pay thirty shekels of silver: showing the distinction between bond and freemen.

The law given to the Israelites, in regard to circumcision, required the master to circumcise his male servant, bought with his money or born in his house; and, of course, it presupposes the right and power to enforce the circumcision.

Thus, we see that, at a time when the Israelites had no slaves, but were themselves, in a manner, fugitive slaves, and when they had no use for slaves, being wanderers in a wilderness, and fed by God's own hand, he provided laws for bringing in, buying, inheriting and governing, slaves, in the land unto which they were to be brought at the end of forty years. He made laws recognizing the right of property, in man and in his descendants, forever—the right to trade in that property, without any limit, except that the Israelites could not buy each other; and the right to punish the slave, with no limitation, except that if the slave should die under his master's hand, the master should be punished—and if maimed, in certain ways, he had a right to freedom. These laws are worse, for the slave, than the laws of any southern State. They were provided, by God himself, for his chosen people. To any man, who admits that the Bible is given by inspiration from God, they prove that, in buying, selling, holding and using slaves, there is no moral guilt. Like all the institutions of the Deity, the holding of slaves may become criminal, by abuse of the slave; but the relation, in itself, is good and moral.

In the New Testament I find frequent mention of master and servant, and of their duties. Paul and Timothy, in writing to the Colossians, in the third chapter and twenty-second to twenty-fifth verses, exhort servants to obey their masters in all things, and not with eye-service; and in the fourth chapter and first verse, they exhort masters to give their servants what is just and equal.

Paul, in writing to Timothy, tells him to teach the same doctrines; and says, if any man teach otherwise, he is proud, knowing nothing, but

doting about questions and strifes of words: see 1 Timothy vi, 1-6. Peter, also (1 Peter ii, 18–24), exhorts servants to be obedient to their masters, not only to the good and gentle, but to the froward.

Now, we all know, that the condition of the servant of the Roman empire, was much less free than that of the southern negro. His master had a more unlimited control over him; yet, the apostles say to servants, to submit to their masters—not only to the good and gentle, but to the froward; and to masters to give to their servants what is just and equal. Now, had they considered the relation of master and slave, one criminal or immoral, in itself, they must either have omitted to speak of it at all, or have condemned the relation altogether.

Paul wrote an epistle to Philemon, a Christian, a disciple of his, and a slaveholder. He sent it to him by Onesimus, also a convert, a slave of Philemon, who was a fugitive. In it, he prays Philemon to charge the fault of Onesimus to him, saying, he would repay it, unless Philemon forgave it for his sake.

Now, had the holding of slaves been a crime, Paul's duty to Philemon would have required him to instruct Philemon, that he had no rights over Onesimus, but that the attempt to hold him in servitude, was criminal; and his duty to Onesimus would have been, in such case, to send him to some foreign free country, whereby he might have escaped from oppression. But Paul sent him back. Our northern friends think that they manage these matters better than Paul did.

We find, then, that both the Old and New Testaments speak of slavery—that they do not condemn the relation, but, on the contrary, expressly allow it or create it; and they give commands and exhortations, which are based upon its legality and propriety. It can not, then, be wrong.

What we have written is founded solely upon the Bible, and can have no force, unless it is taken for truth. If that book is of divine origin, the holding of slaves is right: as that which God permitted, recognized and commanded, cannot be inconsistent with his will.

ART. V.—HISTORICAL AND STATISTICAL COLLECTIONS OF LOUISIANA.

I. THE PARISH OF ASSUMPTION.

[Our readers are aware we are engaged in the preparation of an elaborate report upon Louisiana, at the instance of the Legislature of the State, and that we have sent out a circular, soliciting information upon a great variety of points. This circular has been sent into every parish, and also was inserted in the May number of Commercial Review, 1850, p. 422. As yet it has produced

but little fruit, though it is to be hoped the citizens of the State will not disappoint us in our reasonable expectation of aid in preparing a work which will be greatly for the public weal.

If it were possible to get answers to our circular, from all the parishes, as fully and as minutely as the one we now present, and which was prepared for us, last year, by Mr. André Le Blanc, of Assumption, and for which he has our unfeigned gratitude, the greatest difficulty in the way of the report would be removed. Will not parish officers, members of the legislature and leading citizens, aid us in this manner. Their services will be acknowledged and their labors published in the pages of the Review, as well as in the final report.

As Mr. Le Blanc's contribution appears in a different language from that in which he wrote it, some unimportant points may have escaped the translator. We say this, in justice to Mr. Le Blanc, who has placed us under so many obligations.—Ed.]

The the first settlements in the parish of Assumption were made in the year 1784. The first inhabitants, of European origin, were emigrants from Nantz, in France, and four-fifth of the white population of the parish are their decendants. A few families from the Canary islands came afterward. The first immigration took place in 1782. There is now such a mixture, by intermarriages, of the first inhabitants, that it would be a difficult matter to establish a distinction between the two people. There are very few American or German families.

The condition of the first inhabitants was, generally, poor; but, hospitality and other virtues, which raise man to the rank he should have in all civilized society, were to be found every where.

The most ancient town is Napoleonville. It dates from 1835. The population is composed of 150 souls. Paincourville comes next; founded in 1836, with a population of 200 or 300. There are other situations, destined to establish towns, which have but the name: such as Vilaville, Chevritteville and Labadieville, where there are two or three houses.

The Indians, found in the country, were called Chatimachas. On Lac Verret was found the bust of a man, sculptured in stone, presumed to be a relic of theirs; also, mounds, which are still existing, where are found human bones, pieces of burnt clay, pieces of white stone shaped as lances, destined, perhaps, to be put at the ends of arrows. There are yet in the parish some roving Indians, but not of the tribe mentioned above; they are mostly Chattaws.

At the time France ceded Louisiana to Spain, a creole of the name of Darpit St. Amant opposed the new government. An order of arrest was issued against him; but, to hinder the Spanish officers, he placed a barrel of gunpowder before his door, and defied them to enter. They immediately retired, and at a little distance from Darpit's house, met a number of armed men, and to appease them had to promise that Darpit should be let alone. They, the inhabitants, agreed to return to their homes, but only on the written order of Darpit.

Nicolas Verret was the first commandant, appointed by the Spanish government, Villanueva, the second. Mithus was appointed the first parish judge, Bela Hubbard the second, when Louisiana was under the territorial

government; and Courvoisier, the third parish judge, when Louisiana was admitted, as a State, into the Union; and the same Bela Hubbard was reappointed as the fourth parish judge. Wincelas Pichot was the fifth parish judge: he was killed, in a duel with Robert C. Martin. The sixth and last parish judge was Alexander Cuvillier. Since the new constitution, parish judges have been abolished, and recorders or archivists perform part of the duties of parish judges. The duties that weighed on a single man (the parish judge), are now divided among several persons; each has his share of the duty to perform, and all works much better and with more regularity.

Among the first settlers, Isaac Hebert was considered the most accomplished, for his education. He was first ancient clerk in a notarial office, in France; next came Nicolas Hebert, L'Abbe Bourg, Latiniste (quite distinguished), Auguste Verret, and a certain Moreau, who died on Lac Verret. His life was a mystery. On his arrival in the parish he retired from all society and lived thirty years alone on Lac Verret, which was then only known to a few hunters.

The parish of Assumption has a large territory, cut up by bayous and lakes, in every direction. The principal lake is called lake Verret: next is lake Jone and lake Palourde. The principal bayous are called bayou Pierre Landry or Grand Bayou, bayou Corne, bayou Pierre Part, bayou St. Vincent, bayou des Oliviers, bayou Creux Blanc, des Attakapas, la Belle Reviere, bayou Long, bayou Maxile, bayou Bœuf, and other small bayous, mostly inhabited. They are all situated to the westward of bayou Lafourche. In the eastern part of the parish you find bayou Choupic and bayou Verret. They are, both of them, improved. Bayou Lafourche divides the parish in two. Two bridges are found in the parish; one on the canal des Attakapas near Napoleonville, and the other on the Grand Bayou, opposite the plantations of Joseph Mottere and W. L. Logie.

The forests furnish such a diversity of trees, shrubs, plants, etc., that my knowledge of botany does not allow me to satisfy you, but I shall give, as near as I can, the names by which they are called in the country. We have the cypress tree—the most precious. It grows as well on high as lowlands, but is more numerous on lowlands. The highland cypress is considered the best timber. It is generally used for building, fences, hogshead and barrel staves. Several varieties of the oak; also, several varieties of the laura, from the magnolia to the laurel, are used for culinary purposes; also the ash, varieties of willow, the cotton wood, the birch, the persimmon, the maple, the gum, the pecan tree, the acacia the hackberry, the olive tree, the wild cherry, the sassafras, whose root is used for tea, and whose leaves, dried and pulverized, make the dish called gombo fillie. The abbe Raynal relates, that during the first establishment made in Louisiana, the root of the sassafras, used in tea, was the only effectual remedy which cured the inhabitants of fevers and other diseases, proceeding from exposure to the emanations and effluvia of newly-cleared lands: this remedy was prescribed by the Indians.

The forests are covered with a great number of varieties of the wild onion

plant, which produces the same effects that mercury does, if the least particle is mashed under the teeth; the plantain, the three-quarter leaf, the fled grass, the wild sarsaparilla, the malo grass, the cuirage, the wild coffee, the worm root, the bardane or rogue's weed, the poke weed, the thistle, the pompier and coco grass, hay, the pisantlits, an exotic grass; the wild pea grows usually in low lands; the ninuphar, or aquatic grass; the wild rice, excellent fodder for cattle; the wild reed, the scrub grass, and a variety of others, too tedious to mention, are all indigenous to the country. The exotic plants are the tobacco, cotton, millet, sugar cane, corn, indigo, sweet potato, Irish potato, gourd, calabash, peas, a variety, beans also, and garden plants of all kinds.

The wild animals are the bear, panther, tiger, wild cat, raccoon, squirrel, deer, otter, muskrat, mink, mole, rabbit, etc. The birds are the partridge, redbird, blackbird, woodcock, crow, grosbec, pievers, woodpecker, crooked-bill, marsh hen, mocking bird, dove, nonpareil, remarkable for the beauty of its plumage; humming bird, malard, water hen, the bee sire, the dipper, the plover, the robin, the wild pigeon, the goose, the brant, the crane a variety, and the lark: mostly birds of passage. The insects are the musketo, the fly, the bumble bee, the wasp, the bee, bed bugs, fleas, red bugs, woodlice, butterflies of all colors, caterpillars, worms, etc., *ad infinitum*. The fish are catfish, casseburgo or sheep head, sardine, buffalo, stinger eels, sun fin, patassas, trout, flounder, grand ecaille, yellow catfish, choupic, mudcat, alligator gar and the sturgeon. The reptiles are the rattlesnake, the dart or spearsnake, the moccasin snake, the garter snake, the copper-head, lizards, vipers and congues—the bite is fatal, though some say we have had no instance of any accident of the kind here.

We have no rocks, nor mines, nor springs. The soil is generally heavy clay and sandy. The best water used is the bayou Lafourche. It is generally clarified with a little alum or peach kernels. Well water, in sandy lands, may be also used, and needs no clarification. It is sweeter than the water from the bayou Lafourche, but does not allay the thirst of those who are not used to it. The soil, on both sides of the bayou Lafourche, is the only one which varies in quality: it is a mixture of sand and clay. The clay is generally found in the points of the bayou and the sandy soil in the bends: the cause is attributable to the more or less strength of the current, it being stronger at the points than in the bends, which causes the deposit of sand. The encroachments made by the inhabitants on both sides of the bayou, before they were sufficiently raised by the desposits of the current, have compelled them to make levees to secure them from inundations when the bayou rises.

The principal cultures are the sugar cane, cotton, corn, rice and tobacco. Indigo is no more cultivated. Culture is brought to a high state of improvement, principally for the sugar cane. Few planters continue to plant cotton and rice, and then but in small quantities. Cotton was introduced when the first improvements were made in the country. The sugar cane has been cultivated, with advantage, since 1824 only. Previous to that time there were only two or three estates producing sugar, and barely

enough to pay their expenses, notwithstanding the high price of sugar in those times. The cause of failure must be attributed to the culture of creole cane, the only quality then used, and which is very sensible to cold. Since the introduction of the ribbon cane and the abandonment of the old method of working with the hoe only, and adopting, with advantage, the plow, and win-rowing the cane as soon as it is touched with the first frost, the crop is generally considered certain. We owe, in a great measure, to the inhabitants of the Carolinas and Virginia, who have settled among us, the great improvements we have so far made in agriculture. As to fruits, we have in our parish, the peach a great variety; the fig, the orange, prunes, grenades, raisins, grapes, pecans and quinces.

The number of acres under cultivation in our parish, to this date, is 785 acres in cotton, 14,698 acres in sugar cane, 123 acres in rice, 15,095 acres in Indian corn. Number of acres not cultivated, 84,727.

The soil is very rich and productive. Cultivated in corn it is inexhaustible; but cane and cotton impoverishes it. After twenty or thirty years it needs manuring. The modus operandi for that object is simple. All we need is rotation—two years of peas, which are used as a precious fodder, and the third year the cane planted yields an abundant crop. Lands are valued according to their position. The price is from twenty to sixty dollars per acre.

A number of horses, cattle, mules and hogs, are raised in the parish. The States of Missouri and Tennessee furnish a certain quantity of the above, and of much larger size, but they are subject to diseases which ours are not. Timber of all kinds is in great quantity and is very good. Roads are very fine in summer but very bad in the winter. Our fences are generally made of cypress timber, on account of its durability and the facility of procuring it; a few planters use the oak rail, but its little wear compel them soon to adopt the custom of the country. Our artificial meadows are planted with peas, corn, oats and clover. Our natural meadows are composed of the following plants and grasses: scrub grass, deer grass, lucerne and a host of other plants.

The articles used as agricultural implements are plows of great variety and quantity; iron chains, hoes, spades, scythes, knives, carts, collars, harness, sugar-mills, kettles and steam-engines.

The carrying of produce, etc., is done by steam and sail boats. The navigation (inland) is very easy; nature has placed, in every direction, navigable bayous which need but little improvement.

There are a great many very old people in the parish. A man that arrives at the age of forty is sure to attain a very old age. Life is more precarious among the young people, on account of the excesses, of all kinds, of which they are fond. Births are more numerous than deaths: for example, in a family taken singly, composed of eight or ten children, one or two die; and the youngest has attained the age of sixty, which would make, taking all the families collectively, twenty per cent. of deaths only in sixty years, while in the most healthy countries of Europe, taking one hundred children, half are dead before they attain the age of fifty years. The most

sickly months, for children particularly, are June, July and August. If the parents are particular in giving them vermifuges before this season, they are generally preserved from disease and from worms.

Old men die generally in winter, and are little exposed to the infirmities of old age; we have no gouty rheumatics, paralytics, dropsies, or any scrofulous diseases.

The white population of the parish is composed of 2,404 women, and 2,930 men, including children. We have 5,350 blacks; in all, 10,684 inhabitants, and 1,052 voters.

The value of the labor of the slaves is much less than that of the white and free man. The day's work of a slave is limited to a cord of wood, or an acre of ditching a foot and a half wide and one foot deep, or one acre of fencing, or a quarter of an acre of scraping, either cane or corn.

The white and freeman generally does double the above work, when it is for his own benefit. A white man will work fifteen acres of land, and the general rule is ten acres to the hand, for the slaves, able bodied men.

In regard to the manner, or mode, of making sugar and cultivating the sugar cane: the land is plowed up, early in the season, at every six, seven, or eight feet distance, if your land is either old or new—the greater the distance if the land is new; make a furrow, with the plow, three or four inches deep; the cane is then put in, length-ways, lapping them to one-third of their length; they are then covered over with the plow, if the land is moldy, otherwise with the hoe. So soon as the cane grows it is plowed as often as possible, being careful not to plow too near the cane, for fear of giving it any dirt, which is generally done not before the months of May, June or July, when the cane has well suckered, or thrown out its sprouts; then the cane is well provided with soil, to protect the roots from the winter. So soon as the cane is cut down, a furrow is run, on both sides of the row, to facilitate vegetation for the next season.

Plant cane is kept in mattresses; care is taken to make them in October; the plant cane should be of the best. If to be planted in old ground, the first year's cane should be used; if in new land, second year's rattoons should be used.

The time for planting is in January, February and March. In old lands the planting should be renewed every three years, and four years for new land. To succeed well in the culture of cane, the land should be well drained.

Different methods are used to make sugar. Some boil high, with a great deal of lime to make the sugar heavy, and others do quite the contrary—boil the sugar lightly, and with little lime, and obtain a sugar of finer quality. This last method seems to me the most reasonable, and the most lucrative, in as much as the quality is far superior and commands a better price in the market. There are other methods, lately introduced, but we are not yet acquainted with the results. The fact is, if we wished, we could make, and with very little expense, sugar as good as the Havanna; the method would be more complicated, but the quality of the sugar would pay well. The way would be, to have a certain quantity of molds, susceptible of

holding twenty-five pounds of sugar; fill them up with sugar, highly boiled, with little lime, then cover with moss and clay; draw the sugar out of the molds, after eight or ten days, and expose it to the air; then crush it, being careful to take off an inch or two of the end of the loaf, to have the sugar of the same quality; the sugar would be white, and would stand a sea voyage well, and be fit to be used on the best tables.

The population of Assumption is generally Catholic; there are, however, a few Protestants. Very few persons are to be found who cannot read or write. The first inhabitants were better educated, and were better informed, than at present. There are, in the parish, three Catholic churches. The church of the Assumption, built of brick, and by the inhabitants; the church of St. Elizabeth, situated at Paincourtville, built of wood, and erected, in 1838, by the Catholics living on the western part of bayou La Fourche; the church of St Philomine, built in 1847, by the inhabitants of the lower part of the parish. There is, also, a Protestant church in Napoleonville, built in 1837; the clergy live by annual subscriptions, and the casuals of the church. The first burial took place in 1793; the man buried was called Lewis Blanchard.

COMMERCE.—The merchants sell, on credit, payable from March to March. There are twenty commercial houses that sell on these terms. There is much business done in trading for the produce. A great many peddlers hawk about, from house to house, exchanging goods for eggs, fowls, onions, sweet potatoes, &c.; one has no idea what a lucrative business it is; also the selling of bread, which is also made, and of a superior quality.

The importation, to the other States, is principally of sugar and molasses, which is more or less, according to the season; however, on an average, we can estimate the value of the above articles, for many years back, at a million of dollars annually exported from our parish.

We have no banks, railroads, insurance offices and interior improvements, nor have we any scientific societies. We have had, for the last twenty years, no capital crime to record, neither any degrading punishment to inflict. The inhabitants are very charitable, so much that any unhappy individual, who should lose his house by fire, could easily recover more than the amount, should he take the trouble of having a subscription list passed among the inhabitants of the parish. We have no charitable institution. The organization of the militia is very loose. No press in the parish, no public print of any kind. The parish taxes are applied, in part, to the education of the children of the indigent, and to succor the travelers, who should fall sick on some plantation, and who should be without any means: also for repairing public buildings.

The roads and levees need no public expense; every planter is bound, by the by-laws of the police jury, to repair the road and levee fronting his plantation. Our judicial expenses amount to three or four hundred dollars per annum. Neither the justices of the peace, nor the constables, can live with the emoluments of their offices. There are fourteen justices of the peace, and one constable can do all the business. There are, also, one district

judge, a clerk, a sheriff, four auctioneers and a recorder, two lawyers and ten medical men, seven of the last having good practice.

Gales of wind are very rare, and not dangerous. Thunder is very frequent in the rainy season, during June, July and August, but occasions no harm to mention. We have to record only one meteorological phenomenon—a rain of fire, which happened in 1835, or '36, at four o'clock, A. M., in the month of November; so say several individuals. It happened in the rolling season, when part of the population are always up during the night, and could easily see it.

The climate is rather irregular. The sudden variations of the atmosphere cause indispositions, which are as suddenly cured. If a cool day gives a cold, the heat of the next day makes it disappear with the same promptitude. We have some very severe winters, and others so mild as not to injure, in the least, the most delicate plants. Our summers are by no means disagreeable, except in the rainy and stormy season; the heat then is suffocating, for a few hours, say from eleven o'clock A. M. to three o'clock P. M. It is not felt so much—laboring men are then off from their work.

We have no literary productions, nor any public records, nor any private ones. Though I have taken much pains, I never could find out if there existed, in the hands of any inhabitants of the parish, any books, papers, records, which relate, in any way, to the history of Louisiana, or the first settlements.

ART. VI.—SOUTHERN MEDICAL REPORTS.

GENERAL AND SPECIAL REPORTS ON THE MEDICAL TOPOGRAPHY, METEOROLOGY AND PREVALENT DISEASES, OF THE SOUTHERN STATES.

THE works of *southern* men, upon subjects relative peculiarly to the *South*, are among the rarest productions of the day, and, as such, deserve the highest consideration from all who can credit that something good, by a possibility, may come out of Nazareth, and that the whole intellect of the nation is not, as of course, concentrated and intensified in the book makers and book mongers of the North. Not that we have any very great faith, either in the mere multiplication of commodities like these, or believe that such multiplication, in itself, presupposes a very high degree of literary advancement. The reverse is often the case, where letters degenerate into a trade, and the love of gain is found active in employing and *prostituting* the pens which, if occupied at all, should rather be in the diffusion of light and knowledge. This trade, as it were, of book making by machinery, of measuring literary composition, like calico, by the yard stick, and bartering for it on the rules of arithmetic, has not yet been learned by the South,

and we rejoice that it has not. It is thus it may be true, but from a different reason from that which has been insultingly intimated by northern writers, that no one, in their latitude, ever reads a southern book! We have not asked for such patrons, or the miserable *gain* which their countenance could give, but have been content, unostentatiously, but sincerely and devotedly, to pursue science and letters for themselves, and their own rich reward; and, in enlarging their arena, have preferred to do it without the pomp and show of blustering authorship.

Notwithstanding this, however, we are always glad to see a *southern* book; and, in this instance, the pleasure is enhanced by the fact that the author is one of our own fellow citizens and immediate *personal* friends, and we have watched, from their very dawning, the progress of his labors, in a field struck out by himself and almost entirely new. In his restless energies and assiduities, his vigils by night, his enthusiasm and hopefulness, we have wished him, from our heart, success; and now, that the labor of the day is over, we would add, to those well wishes, congratulations the most genuine and unaffected.

The aim of Dr. Fenner, as we understand it, in the volume before us, and which will be continued *annually*, should sufficient encouragement offer, an event we sincerely trust will occur, is three-fold:

1. To induce a more close and rigid study of the diseases which are peculiar to the South, and which can seldom be understood by those who are not familiarly acquainted with the meteorological, topographical and hydrographical relations and conditions which subsist among us. The whole subject must be studied together, if studied thoroughly.

2. To provoke habits of greater research and industry among southern physicians, and afford a medium of communicating with each other, upon the highest branches of the profession, less ephemeral than the magazines of the day, and to stimulate these professional intercommunications.

3. To furnish the statesman, planter or citizen, with full statistics of the mortality of different sections, the tendencies to peculiar diseases, the probable and possible health ameliorations, and those general mortuary facts which come now to occupy an important place in the studies of political economists, municipal authorities, planters and legislators.

The plan is a wise and elevated one, and the question presents itself, Has the execution corresponded?

In justice to Dr. Fenner, we will say, there were innumerable perplexities and difficulties connected with the issue of his first volume, which prevent its being fairly considered a criterion of the merit which

subsequent ones will possess. In the first place, the enterprise was novel, and the more enthusiastic an author is, at the outset, the more difficult will he, in general, find it to influence the cöoperation of others. In the present case, this was strikingly illustrated, as we had occasion to know. Then there was too much haste in the composition and arrangement of matter, from an earnest desire to issue before the sitting of the National College of Physicians at Cincinnati, which precluded the appearance of contributions in progress, but not finished, and a vast accumulation of facts, in the portfolio of the editor, collected with pains, and intended for the pages of his work.

Yet, with all these obstacles, the result has been a large volume of valuable and interesting facts, which, though somewhat deficient in arrangement, are yet of a kind calculated to excite the attention of inquirers, and a number of elaborate communications, relating to the diseases and topography of different southern States and districts, from the pens of able and experienced physicians. With such a beginning, the most important results may be anticipated; and, from our knowledge of Dr. Fenner's habits, we may be allowed to say, there are few men so competent to perform the laborious, and, at the same time, peculiar duties he has assumed. Inquisitive by nature, patient, studious, enthusiastic, with an active and cultivated intelligence, he will never sleep at his post, nor desert it, while a ray of success shall illumine its horizon.

Our purpose now is, to give a hasty analysis of the different departments of the work, for the benefit of our readers, as well as to call more general attention to its merits; but, before doing so, we would hazard a few suggestions to the editor, which may not be unworthy of his consideration:

1. We recommend, hereafter, that more especial attention be devoted to the mortality, longevity, physical health, diseases, natural increase, etc., of the free negro and slave population of the South. Calling the attention of correspondents, in every quarter, to the subject, collecting and urging the collection of all facts and statistics, and so presenting them, in parallel tables, with the facts and statistics of the same kind collected from the North, as will enable correct deductions to be made. We have an idea that a volume of light exists here, in favor of the institution of slavery, which should influence the minds of the statesman and practical philanthropist. The South has, hitherto, neglected this source of information and illustration, and, we believe, it is in the power of Dr. Fenner to supply the defect.

2. We suggest a close and scrutinizing attention to the actual and comparative mortality of New Orleans, past and present, more partic-

ularly than to the other southern cities, that it may be discovered, if possible, how far the influences of climate are likely to operate adversely to its position as the great southern emporium. The lately published facts and figures, of Drs. Barton and Simonds, indicate a state of things most unfavorable to the city, and we should like to see the subject become one of especial study. The more that can be developed upon it, the better for the interests of the place. In this way, cities, that were very pest holes, have been relieved.

3. Let the subject of vital statistics, throughout all the southern States, have a prominent place. We are aware it is almost impossible to get the facts, since few of the cities have provided for their collection, and individuals have not felt sufficient interest. These facts would dissipate, it is thought, many erroneous impressions in regard to our climate, and greatly promote the general advances of our population. The general institution of registers of births, marriages and deaths, should, at all times, be urged upon the legislators of the country, and fortified by such arguments, and illustrations, as will present themselves to any one cognizant of the labors of statisticians in Europe, and the happy results of them, in improving and extending the average of human life, health and comfort.

4. And, finally—though we know not on what principle to recommend it, unless on that of Dr. Cartwright, that crime is disease (at least he says, perhaps facetiously, that *rascality*, in negroes, may be cured by medicine)—could not the editor furnish the digested returns of public prisons, penitentiaries, pauper houses, as well as hospitals, that they may be compared with those of other communities?

We take up, in order, the Louisiana portion of the reports. The first is the editor's, and discusses the topography and meteorology of New Orleans and diseases of 1849. Each month has its appropriate place. Upon the subject of prisons and asylums it is said, "there is a remarkable fact connected with their sanitary condition, viz.: that the inmates suffer less from the prevailing diseases, such as yellow fever, cholera and the like, than any other persons in the city. The prisons are situated on the outskirts of the city, which, we should suppose, were the most unhealthy localities, and the only striking difference between the living of the inmates and the citizens at large, consists in the regularity and temperance of their habits and their seclusion from the direct rays of the sun." Dr. Barton's remark, "There is no proper rainy season in New Orleans," is made the ground of a discussion, in which many valuable meteorological tables are introduced. It appears that in the ten years, 1840 to 1850, the quantity of rain which fell at New Orleans was 696,329 inches, an average of 69,632

annually. The fall of rain, according to seasons, on the average, was:

In Spring,.....	156,695	inches.
" Summer,.....	239,785	"
" Autumn,.....	117,040	"
" Winter,.....	182,658	"

The summer being the wettest season during six years, the winter during three, and the spring during one. The conclusion is, "there are two rainy seasons in New Orleans, the winter and summer." To our mind, however, Dr. Barton is sufficiently correct for all practical purposes. From the tables furnished we compile one, showing the temperature of New Orleans for ten years, *mean* Fahrenheit:

	Spring.	*Summer.*	*Autumn.*	*Winter.*
1840,.....	74.3	84.4	71.3	57.2
1841,.....	71.4	83.9	71.4	56.9
1842,.....	73.0	82.3	70.0	56.9
1843,.....	68.5	82.0	73.8	56.7
1844,.....	72.6	83.7	72.2	58.3
1845,.....	70.3	82.3	67.9	53.3
1846,.....	75.4	80.3	73.4	56.2
1847,.....	69.8	87.7	70.6	53.5
1848,.....	69.7	82.3	72.2	56.6
1849,.....	74.9	83.0	70.6	58.6

In 1840 and 1846 there was no yellow fever; 1842 and 1849, mild; 1843, 1844, 1846 and 1848, moderate epidemic; 1841 and 1847, severe epidemic.

Paper second, is an interesting account of the inundation of New Orleans in 1816, which resembles, in many respects, that of 1849. The crevasse broke at McCarty's plantation, six miles from the city, on Monday, 6th May, and by the following Wednesday, the newspaper account states:

"Yesterday, all Rampart street and the squares between Bienville and Canal, nearly as far as Dauphine street, were under water. At this time, the lower parts of the suburbs Montegue, Lacourse, St. Mary, Marigny, with the whole suburbs Gravier, Trémé and St. John, are under water. You may go in a boat from Chartres, down Canal to Dauphine street, then down Bienville to Burgundy street; from which point, descending St. Louis street to Rampart, you may proceed toward the lower suburbs and again reach Dauphine street, at its intersection by the public walk." On the 25th May, the paper adds: "Old authorities recount three inundations here. One in 1785 and another in 1791. There was not a greater mortality in those two years than usual. A third occurred in 1799. There died this year more or less, but not in consequence of the inundation." The same remarks apply to the flood of 1849. On the 7th June, 1816, the waters had retired from the city and the summer continued very healthy.

Professor Forshey contributes a chapter upon the hydrography of the Mississippi river, which, perhaps, has some relation to the medical condition of the country. It is illustrated with several large and valuable diagrams and charts, and furnishes the best account of the crevasse of 1849 (Sauvés) we have ever met with. On the 30th May the water reached its maximum.

"Its boundary line was in Carrollton up to Fourth street, above Canal avenue, and thence along Third street to the Greenville line, where it came up to near the railroad. Thence to the upper line of Bouligny, it kept about three squares from the railroad; through Bouligny to Freeport to the line of Lafayette, the rails were under six inches in the deepest part. Keeping in the rear of the Apollo street high grounds, it crossed Felicity road, between Bacchus and Dryades street, and crossed Triton walk at Phillippa, Poydras at Baronne street, and reached Canal street, between Carondelet and St. Charles. It came into the gutters on Dauphine down to St. Louis, and thence stretched diagonally to the old Basin, on St. Peter street. All the cemeteries were deep under water, so that interments were made chiefly at Cypress Grove. About 220 inhabited squares were flooded, more than 2,000 tenements surrounded by water, and a population of near 12,000 souls, either driven from their homes or living an aquatic life of much privation and suffering. What an active benevolence, and the aid of municipal charity, could do, was done to relieve the distressed. It is too late now to inquire whether a more judicious investment of authority and effort to close the crevasse, would not have rendered both nearly unnecessary. The loss to the city in various ways was incalculable; and as yet nothing was done to remove the cause."

We have not time to go more at length into Mr. Forshey's paper, nor is it necessary, considering how much we have published upon the subject from him and from other sources. His table of high water marks is especially interesting. We learn from it, the river reached the highest known limit opposite Natchez in 1815, and was nearly at that point in 1813 and 1823. In 1811, it was the highest in forty years. The mean highest point, for thirty years, is about the 1st May; the mean lowest, the 1st October. In 1849, the highest was 14th March, the lowest 9th October. The highest point of the Levee at New Orleans is fifteen feet higher than the basin and swamp, Levee street is about twelve feet higher, Chartres eleven, Royal ten, Bourbon nine, Dauphine eight, Burgundy seven, Rampart six, etc.

The fourth paper, embraces the valuable meteorological and mortuary report of Dr. Barton of the New Orleans Board of Health, 1849, which we have already analyzed and examined in full.

The fifth paper, is a contribution from the editor on the fevers of New Orleans, and especially the yellow fever of 1849, in which is furnished many elaborate tables, illustrating and enforcing a theory of

his, which he has adopted and clings to with much pertinacity and great show of reason, viz.: that yellow fever is only one of the forms of endemic fever, malarious if you will, which derives its characteristic features for the locality and attendant circumstances where it prevails, and that yellow fever cannot be classed properly among epidemics, if there be any strict and real distinction in the meaning of terms. We are glad to learn, that Dr. Fenner, having collected many reports on the early epidemics and fevers of the city, will, before long, give to the profession a "history of yellow fever in the valley of the Mississippi."

The sixth paper, digests all the reports of the New Orleans Charity Hospital for many years, and is by Dr. Simonds, one of the most intelligent and laborious medical statisticians of the South. We have had occasion before to dissent from some of his conclusions, and intend more fully, hereafter, to examine and present the tables contributed by him on the same subject, to the Medical Convention and the New Orleans papers.

Dr. Fenner follows with two very elaborate and studied articles upon the epidemic cholera in New Orleans, 1848–'49, and the epidemic colic of 1849. These are valuable for the minute history furnished of the progress of these diseases and the various and conflicting modes of treatment adopted. On the subject of colic, the opinion is intimated, it may result from the leaden pipes used in conveying water through the city. The water of the various soda fountains was analyzed by the writer to trace the presence of this lead, in almost every instance with success. It is generally said that chlorides and sulphates will prevent the action of water upon lead, but Dr. Riddell thinks there is not a sufficiency of these salts in the Mississippi to prevent such action.

Of the other papers on Louisiana, in regard to the parishes, the various asylums and hospitals of the city, etc., we have not time to notice. One of these, by Dr. Booth, on the cholera of Lafourche, is a philosophical and elegant production, doing great honor to the author, who is still but a young man, and must continue to win golden laurels in his profession. His description of the cholera at Bishop Polk's plantation, does not equal the reality, as we can speak from personal knowledge, having been on a visit there at the time and suffered something like an attack of the fell scourge ourselves.

The remainder of the volume, about one-half, is occupied with reports from the States of Alabama, Georgia, Mississippi, Tennessee, South Carolina and Texas—from those of Dr. Bassett upon Huntsville and its vicinity, Dr. Pendleton on Georgia, and Dr. Ketchum on

the mortuary statistics of Mobile, we shall extract some valuable matters in the next number of the Review. It is impossible for us to do justice to them now. We must also omit any notice of the excerpta and miscellanies, the notices of medical colleges and medical publications, appended at the end of the volume.

May Dr. Fenner find, from the evidences of public favor which shall crown his labors, that he has performed a good work, and one which will add materially to his professional reputation and fortunes.

ART. VII.—SUBMERGED LANDS.

WHICH IS THE BEST AND CHEAPEST METHOD OF RECLAIMING THE SUBMERGED LANDS OF LOUISIANA?

SEVERAL plans have been suggested. One is to straighten the river, and so increase the velocity as to enable the current to dig out a channel sufficient to discharge the waters brought in by its numerous tributaries.

Another is to open new outlets into lake Pontchartrain, and thus discharge the water.

Another is to make embankments of sufficient hight and strength to confine all the water within the channel, and thus prevent overflow.

Professor Robinson, in his able treatise on mechanical philosophy, has deduced, from numerous experiments, made at great labor and expense, by men of practical science, a "Theory of Rivers," which reduces the whole question to a very simple proposition.

He says: "We learn, from observation, that a velocity of three inches per second, at the bottom, will just begin to work upon fine clay, fit for pottery, and, however firm and compact it may be, will tear it up: yet no beds are more stable than clay, when the velocities do not exceed this; for the water soon takes away the impalpable particles of fine clay, leaving the particles of sand, sticking by their lower half, in the rest of the clay, which they now protect, making a permanent bottom, if the stream does not bring down gravel or coarse sand, which will rub off this very thin crust, and allow another layer to be worn off. A velocity of six will lift fine sand; eight will lift sand as coarse as linseed; twelve inches will roll along fine gravel, twenty-four inches will roll along round pebbles an inch in diameter, and it requires three feet per second, at the bottom, to sweep along shivery angular stones, the size of an egg. See p. 466, vol. ii.

We learn, from the same authority, that the velocity of a current depends upon certain fixed laws, which have, in like manner, been ascertained by numerous experiments. He tells us, page 452, on the authority of Mr. Watt, that a canal, eighteen feet wide on the surface, seven feet at bottom, and four feet deep, with a slope of four inches in a mile, has a velocity of seventeen inches per second on the surface, ten at bottom and fourteen in the middle. On the next page he tells us that the velocity of the Po Grande, whose breadth is seven hundred and fifty-nine feet, and depth thirty-one feet, with a declivity of six inches per mile, is thirty-one inches per second, and that the current of the Rheno, whose breadth is one hundred and eighty-nine feet, and depth nine feet, with a declivity of fifteen inches in the mile, is forty-four inches per second.

He shows that the velocity of the current is continued, on a smaller slope, as the rivers, increased by the addition of tributary streams, approach the

sea. This continued velocity he terms the "energy of deep waters;" and, on pages 476, 477, says:

"We have seen in what this energy consists; it is only a greater quantity of motion, remaining in the middle of a great stream, after a quantity has been retarded by the sides and bottom; and we clearly see that, since the addition of a new, and, perhaps, an equal stream, does not occupy a bed of double surface, the proportion of the retardations to the remaining motion must continually diminish as the river increases by the addition of new streams. If, therefore, the slope were not diminished, the regimen would be destroyed, and the river would dig up its channel. We have a full confirmation of this, in the many works that have been executed on the Po, which runs with rapidity through a rich and yielding soil. About the year 1600 the waters of the Panaro, a very considerable river, were added to the Po Grande, and, although it brings along with its freshes a vast quantity of sand and mud, it has greatly deepened the whole Tronco di Venezia from its confluence to the sea. This point was clearly ascertained by Manfredi, about the year 1720, when the inhabitants of the valleys adjacent were alarmed by the project of bringing in the waters of the Rheno, which then ran through the Fenarese. Their fears were overcome, and the Po Grande continues to deepen its channel every day, with a prodigious advantage to navigation; and there are several extensive marshes which now drain off by it, after having been for ages under water; and it is to be particularly remarked, that the Rheno is the foulest river, in its freshes, of any in that country."

Professor Robinson adds: "We insert this remark because it may be of great practical utility, as pointing out a method of preserving, and even improving, the depths of rivers, or drains, in flat countries, which is not obvious, and rather appear improper; but it is strictly conformable to a true theory, and the operations of nature, which never fail to adjust everything, so as to bring about an equilibrium."

It will be seen that this "theory" applies to the Mississippi river. In its character it is like the Po, and it follows, that, as the effect of the introduction of two additional rivers, of nearly equal volume, has been to deepen the channel of the Po, greatly for the advantage of navigation, and that, instead of causing it to overflow its banks, it has drained off large marshes, which had been, for ages, under water; so, instead of causing it to overflow embankments confining its waters within its channel, would cause the Mississippi to increase its energy, and thus deepen its bed.

From the mouth of the Ohio to the Balize is a continuous delta, exhibiting the same phenomena which is fully explained by Professor Robinson's theory. It requires a velocity of eight to twelve inches per second to lift and take along coarse sand, whereas a velocity of three inches will lift and carry forward fine clay; thus, as the river approaches the sea, and the velocity of the current is diminished, the coarser particles, held in suspension, are deposited, and the lighter clay is carried forward to the gulf. As the whole delta has been reclaimed from the ocean by the same process, it follows that the lower part of the formation, that is, the particles carried forward to the gulf and deposited, from the bottom to the surface of the water, are chiefly particles of fine clay; and hence we find that the soil, at and below New Orleans, is made of fine, impalpable particles of clay, because, in obedience to a fixed law, the river has deposited the sand and heavier particles above, carrying forward the lighter clay to the gulf. We can now well see why it is that the channel is not more than twelve or eighteen feet deep at the Balize, and not more than ten or twelve at the mouth of the Ohio, and yet is more than two hundred feet deep from Fort Jackson to New Orleans. At the Balize the current is arrested by the waters of the gulf, and the velocity is not sufficient to lift the fine particles of clay deposited in the bed. At the mouth of the Ohio, and above, the velocity is such

that it sweeps along coarse sand, which is deposited before it reaches New Orleans, where the current, although the velocity is not sufficient to take along coarse sand, has the power to lift and carry forward the fine, impalpable particles of clay, which constitute the whole bed of the river at and below the city.

These principles being established, it follows that, if we straighten the river, the velocity will be so much increased that the current must bring down great bodies of coarse sand, which will be deposited in the channel, which, in the first place, would be cut down much below what it now is, and then filled up by the large deposit of heavy sand brought from above, the effect would be to divert the channel into the softer material, on one or the other side of the river, which, in obedience to the laws that govern its course, would cut for itself a meandering bed. It is, therefore, impossible to confine the river within a straight channel: and if it were possible, the current would be so rapid as to prevent its navigation until it brings down so large a deposit of coarse sand as to elevate the bed, so as to give the channel a meandering course. The same results would, in a corresponding degree, be produced by opening one or more outlets into the lake above New Orleans. The volume of water which is now discharged into the gulf, through a channel of one hundred and sixty miles in length, would, in that case, be discharged into the lake, on the same level with the gulf, through a channel of five miles in length, and there would necessarily be a corresponding increased velocity. This new channel would be made through the deposits of fine clay, similar, in all respects, to the fine clay which constitutes the bed of the river at and below New Orleans; and it requires no argument to show that, if the current, with its present velocity, has dug a channel two hundred feet deep at New Orleans, the power of the current, in the new channel, would be such as to turn the whole river into lake Pontchartrain. In that case, the present bed of the river, below the outlet, would soon become a lake, and the communication between New Orleans and the Mississippi river, and between New Orleans and the sea, be cut off by the filling up of both ends of that great lake.

So much, as to the effect to be produced on the city of New Orleans by a new outlet. It remains for us to see what effect this new outlet would have on the channel. As the land rises above the waters of the gulf, it produces, first, grass, then a growth of cane and willows; as we proceed up the river we find cane, and large trees and under-brush, with, in many places, a thick growth of rushes; the grass, rushes, cane and undergrowth, lining the shores of the river, act as filterers, and, by arresting the flow of the current, causes whatever is held in suspension to be deposited at, or near, the bank of the river. At the mouth the deposit is fine clay, further up it is coarse sand.

This deposit, thus made, has raised the banks of the river, whilst that which lies back from it, remains as it was first formed, slightly increased by the deposit of the light particles borne by the overflowing water through the vegetable filterers on or near the banks. We have seen that a velocity of eight inches per second will lift coarse sand—we know that as the current, acting under like circumstances, produces the like effect, the time must have been when the bed of the river at New Madrid was as deep as it is now at New Orleans, yet it is not now, in low water, more than an average of ten feet at and above New Madrid, whilst it is near or quite two hundred feet deep at and below New Orleans, and we now see why this is so; the strong current from above has brought down so much coarse sand as to fill up the bed of the river once as deep at New Madrid as it now is at New Orleans, by filling up the channel with sand so coarse as to resist its further action; each successive overflow has carried the coarser sand and lighter clay into the back lands, until they too have been elevated in a corresponding degree. It follows, that, if we open an outlet into the lake,

and thus produce a corresponding increased velocity in the current above, the river will dig out its bed, and bring down large deposits of coarse sand, filling up the lake first, and then the bed of the river, until it will have established for itself precisely the same regimen that it now has—when it will overflow its banks precisely as it now does. It follows, that opening a new outlet is a temporary expedient, which, by increasing the velocity of the current, will bring down the coarse sand much more rapidly and thus fill up the bed of the river with a permanent material, when the overflow will be as great as it now is, *unless the current, driven by the resistance of this heavy sand, deposited in the channel, shall cut for itself new beds in the lighter clay.* In that case the river will resume a meandering course and no one can tell where it may go.

It remains for us to see what the effect of embankments will be, and here the facts cited by Professor Robinson, that the addition of two streams of nearly equal volume (one in 1600 and the other 1720), instead of filling up the bed or causing it to overflow its banks, has deepened the channel of the Po, and drained large marshes which had been for ages under water, seems to be conclusive; but a matter of so much importance, affecting the interests of so many individuals, should be carefully examined in all its bearings.

We have seen that Professor Robinson's "Theory of Rivers" rests upon a few fixed, known laws; we know that the overflow depends upon the capacity of the channel; we have seen that the channel, at New Madrid, which was once two hundred, is now but ten feet deep in low water, and we now know that this channel has been reduced to ten feet by heavy sand brought from above by an increased velocity of the current, and it requires no argument to show that, as the channel of the river from the mouth of the Ohio to the Balize is one inclined plane, and the velocity of the current depends upon the declivity, that velocity must be increased if we diminish the length of the plane, and that there will be a corresponding diminished velocity if we increase the length of the plane. To open an outlet above New Orleans would diminish the length of the plane, and, by increasing the velocity, bring down the heavy sands now deposited in the upper part of the river; whereas, by elevating the banks and confining the whole volume within the same channel, we would increase the length of the plane and at the same time enable the current to cut out for itself a deeper channel, and by arresting the velocity of the current above, cause the heavy sands to be deposited sooner than they now are, thus arresting the present process of filling up the upper bed of the river at the same time that we deepen its channel; which accounts for the striking facts, cited by Professor Robinson, that the Po, increased by two additional streams of nearly equal volume, each bringing down large quantities of sand and mud, has continued, for more than one hundred years, to deepen its channel, and has drained off large marshes which had been for ages under water.

The next question to be considered, if we elevate the banks so as to confine all the water within the channel, is, from whence we are to obtain the earth? for we know that the river establishes for itself a regimen, and that a very slight disturbance of the bank may cause an alteration in the current sweeping away large tracts of land. We have a ready answer to this question. The river is constantly bringing down deposits of sand and clay, which may be raised by machinery, driven by powerful steam-engines, and, by a process which I have patented, carried at very little cost to the place where it is to be deposited, and this process has this advantage, that its capacity is equal to any power of steam which may be used.

DUFF GREEN.

ART. VIII.—MISSISSIPPI VALLEY.

REMARKS ON THE IMPROVEMENT OF THE RIVER MISSISSIPPI—CUT-OFFS.

THERE appears to be an impression on the minds of many, that a cut-off, made through the narrow neck which separates two bends of a river, to shorten by straightening its course, increases the danger of overflow by the accumulation of water in the reach below, supposed to be caused by the too rapid influx of the water from above through the new channel.

This impression is incorrect, entirely unsupported by the authority of experience, and can only be attributed to the difficulty, which most persons find, in arriving at a clear comprehension of the plainest principles of a science with which they have had neither the opportunity, nor the leisure, to become acquainted. Cut-offs have been too often resorted to as an improvement, and with complete success, to permit such an objection to retain any weight.

It will be readily admitted that a straight course of a river, and of proper breadth, by admitting a greater and more uniform velocity, and offering less resistance to the water, causes, all other things being equal, a regular, unchangeable channel; while the winding course, having the line of the current, and greatest depth at the concave bank by producing abrasion of the same, offering increased resistance, and thereby checking the velocity, causes an irregular and continually changing channel. The object of a cut-off is to produce the former, and avoid the latter effect. It sometimes becomes absolutely necessary to resort to a cut-off, in order to relieve the reach above from inundations, which are caused, in time of flood, by the accumulated water, kept back by the obstructions to the free discharge in the channel round the bend.

A cut-off cannot be injurious to a river, if made judiciously, and in accordance to the course of the upper and lower reach of the river. It cannot increase the danger of overflows, for many reasons:

The quantity of water, discharged by a cut-off into the reach below, is just the same that it had previously received round the bend, and, though it may enter with an increased velocity, it soon communicates a share of that velocity to the water there, which, unless kept back by some obstruction in front, will hasten to seek its level further down.

The fall of the surface of the water in the reach below, of course, is not affected by the cut-off. That still remains the same, and, therefore, retains the same power to relieve itself that it had before.

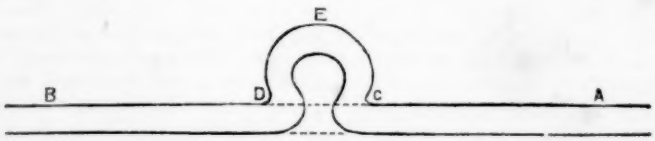
The quantity of water remaining the same, and the fall not being altered, the transporting power of the current is certainly not diminished, but, on the contrary, increased by the additional impulse, communicated to it by the more rapid influx through the cut-off. An elevation of the bed cannot, therefore, take place, to produce a greater vertical rise of the surface.

The height of the surface of the water, in a river, is generally affected by the character of the channel through which it flows. Where the river is obstructed in its course by a bend, or a sudden contraction of the channel, not having sufficient vent, and the velocity being checked by the obstacle in front, the water accumulates above, and its surface rises above its ordinary height. On the other hand, where the channel is open and clear, with no obstacle in front to check the current, it would require an extraordinary influx from above to cause even a slight rise in the surface of the river; for the increased velocity, communicated to the water below by the high water from above, increases the scouring power, deepens its channel, and causes it to run off too rapidly to admit of its rising very high. Hence it is, that the impulse given to the water in the reach below, by the increased velocity of the influx from a cut-off, is sufficient to deepen the channel and preserve a uniform inclination of the surface of the water.

For these reasons, therefore, I contend, that there can be no injurious effects produced on the channel of a river by a cut-off, properly made, nor can the danger of overflow be increased. On the contrary, the effects produced are altogether of a useful and beneficial character.

The reverse of this plain and simple principle has been again, and recently, urged as right; and the assertion reiterated, that a cut-off serves only to relieve the upper lands by submerging the lower. That this is an error needs little demonstration.

A bend, in any river, must check the velocity of its current, by the obstacles it throws in its way; and, to overcome these, requires a greater head, or rise, in the waters above. But a cut-off, which affords a free vent for the water, will discharge the same quantity at its lower cross-section, where it meets the main river again, as at the upper end, with this self-evident advantage, that it requires no extra swell, or elevation of the water above, to force it.



For instance: if bend *C E D* were formed in a straight river, *A B*, which discharges a certain quantity per second, its operation must be a decrease in the current, and consequent elevation of the water above the bend, to produce the required velocity, and its removal could not, certainly, change the water surface at *D*, the natural channel above and below the bend being the same.

What is true of a bend, is equally so of a dam, placed across a river; it elevates the surface of the water above, subjects the lands to floods, unknown before, and decreases the current. By removing this dam we relieve the country above, but certainly cannot submerge that below; unless the removal is done suddenly, during very high water, when the river above is unusually swollen.

It is, therefore, utterly erroneous to suppose the Red river and Raccourci cut-offs can have produced the results attributed to them, or have gratuitously aided mistaken seers, by fulfilling false and impossible prophesies.

As the water accumulates in the channel of a river, and its surface rises, filtration, which is so injurious to the fertility of the adjacent lands, increases also. Whatever, therefore, tends to give a free vent to the water, increases its velocity and deepens its channel, must, also, tend to lower its surface and diminish filtration; and, consequently, not only lessens the danger of overflow, but is otherwise highly beneficial to the lands along its banks.

The more winding the course of a river is, the more irregular and liable to continual change is the channel; for the current is ever washing away the concave bank of its curves, and depositing its materials along its bed. The more direct and uniform breadth the course of a river is, the less resistance does it offer to the current, and the more uniform is its velocity, and the more regular and less liable to change is its channel.

The fact that a river sometimes makes a cut-off through the narrow neck which separates the two bends, and thereby returns to its more natural course from which some accidental obstruction first caused it to deviate, is a sufficient proof that they cannot, of themselves, be injurious; for such cut-offs are attended by no evil consequences, except such as may arise from their being made in time of flood by nature, and the river not being judiciously guided in its operation by the aid of man.

If made at once in time of flood to its full cross-section, when the river above is filled with an unusual accumulation of water, it is very possible that the sudden influx of so large a body of water coming upon the reach below with an increased velocity, may be productive of some temporary, though serious, damage. But if made during the low stage of the river, no possible injury could arise from it—but, on the contrary, much benefit. It would leave full time to prepare the new channel before the time of high water, so that when it did come, the river would find a deeper channel, a freer vent, and an increased velocity to relieve it from the volume of water coming down from above, to prevent its accumulation and to remove all danger of overflow in the reach above and render it utterly impossible in that below.

Much also depends upon the way in which the cut-off is made. If it be made with so little regard to the object sought to be accomplished, as, for instance, to cause it to make a considerable angle with the reach below the same evil intended to be removed would soon re-appear. The current from the cut-off rushing against the opposite bank would continually wash away its materials and at once commence the formation of a new bend. The velocity of the current would be checked, and the water finding no freer vent than before, would accumulate in the reach above and still expose the adjacent country to the danger of overflow and the banks below to destruction. If, however, the cut-off be made so as to form as nearly as possible a straight line with the reach below and above, the object intended would be accomplished, the check imposed upon the waters above by the bend would be removed, a free vent would be opened for their more rapid passage, all danger of an overflow above at an end, and the mischief arising from filtration considerably diminished.

There are two other objections made to cut-offs, which require but a brief notice.

1. Cut-offs, by shortening and straightening the channel of a river, increase its fall in the same distance and thereby add to its velocity, so as to interfere with its navigation.

2. The materials which the river washes down, when it makes the cut-off, accumulate in the reach below and form shoals.

The character of the Mississippi gives a complete answer to these objections and renders them entirely invalid. In the first place, from the point where the danger of overflow begins to the mouth of the river, within which distance alone cut-offs may be considered necessary, the fall is comparatively very slight and gradual—the country being elevated only a few feet above the level of the gulf. Such being the fact, no cut-off made within that distance could interfere seriously, if at all, with the navigation. In the second place, the bed of the Mississippi within the same distance being composed of light, alluvial soil, the more direct and regular the channel is made, and the more the velocity of the current is increased, the less danger is there of the formation of shoals or change in the bed of the river. Shoals or bars are most generally found where the current crosses from one concave bank to another, above and below islands, or where the the breadth of the river is great, but never in a straight reach of proper breadth.

From the foregoing we may draw the following inferences:

That cut-offs improve not only that part of the river where they are judiciously executed, but operate very beneficially throughout its whole course—their tendency being to accelerate the discharge of water, thereby lowering the bed and surface of the river and preventing deposits of the heavy materials which the river brings from above, and that they reduce the floods in height and render them of shorter duration, while they greatly diminish filtration.

ALBERT STEIN.

Mobile, July, 1850.

ART. IX.—PROGRESS OF THE SOUTH AND WEST.

1. CHARLESTON, S. C.*

ITS HISTORY, TRADE, COMMERCE, MANUFACTURES, INTERNAL IMPROVEMENTS, EDUCATION, HEALTH STATISTICS, ETC.

THE late official publication, by the city council of Charleston, edited by Drs. Dawson and Dessausure, to which we have, on one or two occasions, referred, contains a mass of information, in regard to the population and resources of that city, never before collected, and of inestimable value. We shall present to our readers a digest of the most important contents of the volume, regretting, at the same time, that its authors did not go more fully into those comparisons with other cities, and of epoch and epoch, which are among the chief sources of value in these census records. Mere tables have but little importance. The work is, also, more incomplete than a city like Charleston should have furnished, as we particularly note under "crimes," and under "education," "taxes," "expenses of civil administration," "valuation of property," "capital," etc., though of greatest value, have hardly been touched. We also object to a want of independence in following, so minutely, the outline and plan, and even the defects, of Mr. Shattuck's Boston census. At the same time, the many striking merits and great labor of the undertaking, are readily acknowledged, and we have been pressing upon our municipal authorities the importance of a similar publication here, with some hope, at last, of success.

TABLE OF POPULATION.

		INCREASE OR DECREASE.		INCREASE OR DECREASE PER CENT.	
Years.	*White population.*	*Total.*	*Annual.*	*Total.*	*Annual.*
1790,.....	8,089				
1800,.....	9,630	1,541	154.1	19.17	1.91
1810,.....	11,568	1,938	193.8	20.12	2.01
1820,.....	10,653	505 dec.	50.5 dec.	4.36 dec.	.43 dec.
1830,.....	12,828	2,175	217.5	20.41	2.04
1840,.....	13,030	202	20.2	1.57	.15
1848,.....	14,187	1,157	115.7	8.87	.88
	SLAVES AND FREE COLORED.				
1790,.....	8,270				
1800,.....	10,843	2,573	257.3	31.11	3.11
1810,.....	13,143	2,300	230	21.11	2.11
1820,.....	14,127	984	98.4	7.48	.74
1830,.....	17,461	3,334	333.4	23.60	2.36
1840,.....	16,231	1,230 dec.	123 dec.	7.04 dec.	.70 dec.
1848,.....	12,264	3,967 dec.	396.7 dec.	24.44 dec.	2.44 dec.

The tables show that the largest portion of the population is native, being 58 per cent.; the proportion of foreigners slightly exceeds those born in the United States—but out of Charleston. In Boston, the native born are but 35.92 per cent., and of foreign birth, 24.70 per cent In Charleston, 17 per cent. of foreign population were not *naturalized*. The white male population of the city has always exceeded the female, except in 1820 and 1830. The reverse is the case in the colored population. The productive class, or those between fifteen and sixty, in Charleston, is as favorably shown, as in the other American cities, except Lowell.

The number of dwelling houses in the city in 1820, was 2,336; in 1830, 2,481; in 1840, 2,804; in 1848, 3,147; of which 358 are stores wholly. The following table exhibits a state of things highly prosperous in Charleston:

	DWELLING HOUSES.					
Class of Houses.	*Owned by occupant.*	*Number of families.*	*Not owned by occupant.*	*Number of families.*	*Total houses.*	*Total families.*
Inhabited by one family.....784	784	1,482	1,482	2,266	2,266	
" " two " 65	130	235	470	300	600	
" " three " 12	36	53	159	65	195	

* The reader will find, in our first eight volumes, a great many articles upon Charleston, prepared with much care.

Inhabited by four fam's, ...	0	0	26	104	26	104
" " five "	0	0	5	25	5	25
" " six "	1	6	1	6	2	12
" " eight "	0	0	1	8	1	8
" " ten "	0	0	1	10	1	10
Total, ...	862	956	1,804	2,264	2,666	3,220

The water in Charleston is bad, which makes cisterns generally resorted to. In periods of drought, and when these fail, things are in no enviable state, and fierce conflagrations sometimes rule. An artesian well was attempted in 1823. In 1847 another was bored, 323 feet, and abandoned for want of success. It has been re-commenced, but with what prospects we have not learned.

CLASSES OF POPULATION.

The following table exhibits the number and proportions of the different classes. The unmarried men, over fifteen, were 2,571, or 1 in 5.5 of the whole population; the married 2,053, or 1 in 6.9; and the widowers 180, or 1 in 787. The unmarried women, over fifteen, were 1,760, or 1 in 80 of the whole population; the married 2,119, or 1 in 6.6; and the widowed 887, or 1 in 16:

		MALES.		FEMALES.		BOTH.	
Ages.	*Condition.*	*Number.*	*In each 100.*	*Number.*	*In each 100.*	*Number.*	*In each 100.*
Over 15,	unmarried, ...	2,571	53.51	1,760	37.60	4,331	44.14
" "	married, ...	2,053	42.74	2,119	44.56	4,172	43.54
" "	widowed, ...	180	3.75	877	18.44	1,057	11.05
15 to 60,	unmarried, ...	2,515	52.36	1,690	35.53	4,205	43.98
" "	married, ...	1,910	39.76	2,067	43.25	3,977	41.60
" "	widowed, ...	117	2.43	584	12.27	701	7.34
Over 60,	unmarried, ...	56	1.16	70	1.47	126	1.31
" "	married, ...	143	2.97	52	1.09	195	2.09
" "	widowed, ...	63	1.31	293	6.13	356	3.72

The excess of widows over the widowers is very large, being 887 of the former to 180 of the latter. This, however, does not appear to be peculiar to Charleston, as will appear from Mr. Shattuck's census of Boston.

The tables of PAUPERS show that the expense of supporting them has diminished from $100,707.34, for the five years ending 1823, to $38,789.57 in the same period, ending 1849, while the difference in the number has varied little. The labor of these people, employed upon cracking stones for street paving, almost pays the entire expense of their maintenance.

EDUCATION.

The list of free school pupils is 394, amount expended for them $3,900, average to scholar $10, average attendance five years. These are valuable schools, but they are scarcely adequate to the wants of the city. Private teachers, however, abound. There is an admirable high school, established in 1839, with an average of 130 to 150 scholars. It is endowed with $1,000 per annum, for a hundred years, by council. There are several public libraries in Charleston—the Apprentices', with a fine hall; the Mercantile, and the Charleston Library Society—the last named being the oldest and best.

The old CHARLESTON COLLEGE, for which, from all the associations of our younger years, we entertain an attachment which grows stronger as years advance, was chartered in 1791. For a long time it was but a grammar school. It was reorganized for collegiate purposes, and, having fallen through, was resuscitated in 1837, chiefly, if we remember rightly, through the exertions of Henry L. Pinckney. The common council have taken the institution in hand, and are chargeable with its expenses beyond tuition receipts, which excess has, hitherto, been quite considerable. It is now flourishing, with an able faculty, several new professorships—and the number of students gradually, but steadily, increasing. The annual rates are too high to diffuse the advantages of the college as widely as should be. They are $80 per annum, though the best schools in the city receive even more.*

* This institution has, of late, been greatly improved: extensive and additional wings are about to be added to the main building, and the front to be adorned by a colonnade of Ionic order: another professorship has also been established, entitled the chair of "Intellectual Philosophy and Greek Literature." Its condition is most flourishing.

COMMERCE.

There are lines of two steamships running to New York, two to Philadelphia and one to Havanna; eleven sailing ships, two barques, eight brigs and five schooners, to New York; three barques and three brigs, to Boston; three barques, three brigs and three schooners, to New Orleans; two brigs and nine schooners, to Philadelphia; six schooners, to Baltimore, etc. There are eighteen full branch pilots, eight second branch, and nine pilot boats. The tonnage from 1800 to 1805 was:

	Registered foreign trade.	*Coasting.*	*Total.*
1800,	43,732	7,480	51,212
1801,	51,192	8,688	59,880
1802,	31,354	8,653	40,007
1803,	30,993	9,101	40,094
1804,	41,869	8,814	50,683

That from 1843 to 1849, shows a woful falling off—but then the years above were of extraordinary commercial prosperity.

1843,	10,013	11,135	21,148
1844,	8,394	11,221	19,615
1845,	8,516	11,420	19,963
1846,	13,732	13,287	37,019
1847,	14,992	13,667	28,659

There is a splendid dry dock, Gilbert's patent, owned by James Marsh. The largest vessels, cargoes and all, are taken up in two to three hours, and in four years 169 vessels have been served, 39 being ships and barques, and 42 brigs—charge forty cents the ton without cargo, eighty cents with cargo, ten cents per day the ton for use of dock, etc.

In sixteen years forty-one vessels have been wrecked on the coast of South Carolina and the Charleston bar, of which thirteen were ships and barques.

We have published, as our back volumes will show, very full statistics of the exports of rice, cotton and lumber, from Charleston. We give, however, at the end of this article, the exports of cotton and rice, drawn from the elaborate and laborious tables of the census.

The crops of SEA ISLAND COTTON have decreased, from an average of about 35,000 bales in 1820, to an average of 22,000 or 23,000 during the last ten years. Of this, Charleston received about two-thirds and Savannah the rest. The total rice crop of Carolina reaches an average of 130,000 tierces, of which Charleston receives all, except 1,000 or 1,500 tierces going to Georgetown. The Georgia crop averages 35,000, and the North Carolina 7,000 tierces.

The average importation of corn into Charleston, is about 400,000 bushels, of which the railroad now brings one-half from the interior of the State. Importations of oats average 50,000 or 60,000 bushels. Average bales hay 20,000 to 25,000. IMPORTS sugar, average hogsheads 8,000, tierces 200, barrels 2,000, boxes 1,000; Molasses, hogsheads 5,000 (of late , barrels 5,000; average coffee, bags 28,000; salt, sacks about 100,000, and 20,000 bushels.

IMPORTS AND EXPORTS.

	Imports.	*Exports.*	*Revenue.*
Year ending 30th June, 1844,	$1,131,515	$7,433,282	$497,000
" " 1845,	1,143,158	8,899,648	390,276
" " 1846,	902,535	6,848,477	284,493
" " 1847,	1,580,658	10,431,517	389,553
" " 1848,	1,485,200	8,981,917	324,468

BANKS AND INSURANCE COMPANIES.

BANKS.	*Charter.*	CAPITAL.	*Par value of shares.*	*Average rate pr. c. of dividends. 15 years.*
Bank of South Carolina,	1792	$1,000,000	$45	6.09
State bank,	1802	1,000,000	100	5.90
Union bank,	1810	1,000,000	50	5.82

Planters & Mechanics bank,	1810	1,000,000	25	7.17
Bank of the State of South Carolina,	1812	1,123,357	*	....
Bank of Charleston,	1835	3,100,800	100	7.44
South Western R. R. bank,	1838	869,425	25	8.03
COMPANIES.				
Union Insurance company,	1807	† 450,000	60	11.11
Ch'n Fr & M. Insurance company,	1818	† 300,000	60	13.13
South Carolina Railroad company,	1827	3,112,500	75	4.25
Ch'n Insurance & Trust company,	1837	500,000	50	11.88
South Carolina Insurance company,	1846	250,000	25	....

There are four steam cotton presses in Charleston, one cotton factory, six rice-mills, one sugar refinery, fourteen grist-mills, five engine factories, one brass foundery, five saw mills, five ship yards, one turpentine distillery, &c.

RAILROADS.

The Hamburg, of 136 miles, was begun in 1831 and finished in 1833, being *then* the longest road in the world. The Louisville and Cincinnati road was chartered in 1837, but failing, the charter was united to that of the Hamburg road in 1844. Two branches have been added—to Columbia 68 miles, and to Camden 37 miles. Two other branch roads are in construction, to Charlotte, N. C., 109 miles, and to Greenville, S. C., over a hundred miles. The number of passengers on these roads has increased, from 26,649 in 1834, to 75,149 in 1848; the gross receipts, all sources, from $166,559 to $800,073; the bales of cotton, from 24,567 to 274,364.

PUBLIC HEALTH, &C.

The statistics, here, are very full and show the most laborious investigation. There are no tables of births, marriages and deaths, except for a single year, 1848, as no registry system is provided for.

CLIMATE.

"'A variation of eighty-three degrees between the heat and cold of different days of the same years, and of forty-six degrees in the different hours of the same day, in South Carolina, is to be found in its historical records.' This sudden change of forty-six degrees is recorded by Dr. Chalmers, as occurring in 1751. In 1813, it is stated that there was a fall of forty-four degrees in a few hours. Dr. Shecut mentions a fall of thirty-three degrees in twelve hours, occurring in 1819. At the present time, however, such great variations are not so common. In Dr. Chalmers's tables for ten years, from 1750 to 1759, the mean annual temperature was sixty-eight degrees; for the period of ten years, from 1809 to 1818, Dr. Shecut gives the mean annual temperature at sixty degrees, or a difference of eight degrees in the mean annual temperature of the city, in the space of sixty years. From 1849 to the present time, the mean annual temperature has been sixty-four degrees; showing an increase of the mean temperature of four degrees, since 1819."

YELLOW FEVER.

The inhabitants were exempt from 1750 to 1799, except a few cases in 1753 and 1755. From 1792 to 1801, the westerly winds prevailed, and yellow fever raged every summer except two. In the next ten years, the fever was very fatal in years when this wind most prevailed.

"Yellow fever first prevailed as an epidemic in this city in 1699 or 1700; the exact date cannot now be ascertained. According to the account given of it by Dr. Hewet, it prevailed in that year very extensively, carried off a large number of the inhabitants, including many of the chief men of the province, and was called the plague. The same disease recurred in 1703, and caused as fearful a

---

* State bank, with no private stockholders.
† These companies were broken up by the fire of 1838.

mortality as at its previous visitation. From this period, no mention is made of its occurrence until 1728, when it again recurred, and was then first called Yellow Fever, although from the description given of the two former epidemics, there can be no doubt of the identity of the last with the two preceding. In this year, also, it caused a great number of deaths. In the year 1732, it commenced its ravages in May, and continued until September or October; during the height of the epidemic, from eight to twelve whites were buried daily. It again appeared in 1739, 1745, and 1748, and is said to have raged as severely in these years as in 1732. The number of deaths which it caused in those years cannot now be ascertained. From 1748 to 1792, no epidemics of yellow fever occurred, although it is stated that in 1753 and 1755, a few sporadic cases were seen. In 1792, a new series of epidemics occurred; it raged in that year, in 1794, 1795, 1796, 1797, 1799, 1800, 1801, 1802, 1804, 1807. The deaths from it, in those years in which any accounts are to be found, were: in 1799, 239; in 1800, 184; in 1802, 96; in 1804, 148; and in 1807, 162.

"From 1807 to 1817, a period of ten years, there was nearly a complete exemption from epidemics of this disease. In this latter year it reappeared, and caused 270 deaths, of which a large number were children. In 1819, it again prevailed epidemically, causing 176 deaths. In the next year it prevailed slightly, but did not become epidemic. In 1824, another serious epidemic occurred, which carried off 231 persons. From this period, 1824, to 1838, no serious visitation of yellow fever occurred, although several cases of it existed in each of the years 1827, 1828, 1834, 1835. In 1838, the most serious epidemic occurred which has been known in the annals of Charleston, and causing the largest mortality which has ever resulted from the disease in this city. In 1839, it was again epidemic, but to a much less extent, than during the former year. From 1839 to the present time, nine years have elapsed, during which the city has been exempt from the visitations of the scourge, and it is a question vitally important to her interests, whether this exemption is to continue, or whether it is but one of those pauses which have occurred at various intervals in her history. This problem can be solved by time only." *

MORTALITY.

The small-pox has prevailed epidemically several times in the early history of the city, and, in 1738 and 1760, most frightfully. The cholera also raged in 1836. The tables exhibit, in a very favorable light, the health of this city, among the white population, for all ages under fifteen; the proportional mortality being lower, at this age, than either Lowell or Surrey; the former accounted the healthiest city in the United States, the latter the healthiest in all England. Among the black population, the proportional mortality is higher at this age than in Lowell or Surrey, but lower than in the other cities named. In the whole population, under fifteen, the rate of mortality is lower than in any other city named except Surrey. For the ages from fifteen to sixty, however, the comparison is by no means favorable to Charleston; the proportional mortality of this class of her population, both white and black, being higher than in any of the cities named, except Liverpool. For the whole population above sixty, the proportional mortality is higher than in any of the other cities. In the white population above sixty, the rate of mortality is rather lower than in Liverpool and London, but higher than in the other cities. The cause of this increased mortality in the higher ages is a question of interest. It cannot be the result of climate, for, in unhealthy climates, the mortality among children is always greater, in proportion, than among adults. The source of the greater proportional mortality of the middle ages must, therefore, be sought for in the habits of the people, as this is the most fruitful cause of sickness and mortality to a population, the effects of climate excepted.

* The yellow fever has again paid a hurried visit to his old friends in Charleston, merely to show he has not forgotten them, 1849.—Ed.

EXPORTS OF COTTON FROM CHARLESTON.

	EXPORTS—BALES COTTON.							PER CENT.		Receipts at Charleston.		Stock on hand last day in year		COTTON CROP OF THE UNITED STATES.		
	Foreign.		Coastwise.		Total Foreign and Coastwise.		Total exports	Pro. in 100 bales expor								
	S.Island.	Upland.	Sea I.	Upland.	S.Island.	Upland.	Bales.	For gn	Coast.	S.Island.	Upland.	Sea I.	Upland.	S. Island.	Upland.	Total Crop.
1st Oct. 1819 to 30th Sept. 1820,	.....	.....	.....	.....	21,484	125,475	146,959	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	*33,379	352,397	385,776
" 1820 " " 1821,	.....	.....	.....	.....	24,622	98,673	123,295	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	35,510	344,089	379,599
" 1821 " " 1822,	25,510	91,806	†	12,734	25,510	104,540	130,050	†	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	36,285	404,317	440,602
" 1822 " " 1823,	26,747	111,627	"	24,539	26,747	136,166	162,913	"	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	37,577	489,656	527,233
" 1823 " " 1824,	24,632	105,223	"	24,663	24,632	129,886	154,518	"	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	34,583	402,557	437,140
" 1824 " " 1825,	18,253	117,349	"	23,725	18,253	141,074	159,327	"	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	26,016	‡ 505,408	531,424
" 1825 " " 1826,	12,647	141,806	"	22,737	12,647	164,543	177,190	"	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	18,670	691,324	₴ 710,000
" 1826 " " 1827,	31,828	152,885	"	46,290	31,828	199,175	231,003	"	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	46,377	890,623	937,000
" 1827 " " 1828,	22,750	99,518	"	25,369	22,750	124,887	147,637	"	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	34,876	677,124	712,000
" 1828 " " 1829,	23,047	161,531	"	29,450	23,047	190,981	214,028	86.24	13.76	.....	.....	.....	.....	36,776	820,968	857,744
" 1829 " " 1830,	16,536	165,636	1,172	26,084	17,708	191,720	209,428	86.99	13.01	17,515	191,490	1,704	2,204	27,287	949,558	976,845
" 1830 " " 1831,	18,597	148,127	1,720	36,854	20,317	184,981	205,298	81.22	18.78	19,516	190,495	903	7,648	27,903	1,010,945	1,038,848
" 1831 " " 1832,	16,941	165,687	1,302	35,346	18,243	201,033	219,276	83.29	16.71	17,800	195,912	400	2,527	27,907	959,570	987,477
" 1832 " " 1833,	21,787	143,166	1,102	32,925	22,889	176,091	198,980	82.90	17.10	22,609	175,319	380	1,755	35,054	1,035,384	1,070,438
" 1833 " " 1834,	17,149	197,959	1,539	40,924	18,688	238,883	257,571	83.51	16.49	19,435	234,888	1,151	2,639	28,144	1,177,250	1,205,394
" 1834 " " 1835,	15,180	145,649	932	42,358	16,112	188,007	204,119	78.79	21.21	15,265	189,386	501	4,018	24,651	1,229,677	1,254,328
" 1835 " " 1836,	15,131	180,361	729	47,669	15,860	228,030	243,890	80.16	19.84	16,534	228,548	915	3,298	25,551	1,335,174	1,360,725
" 1836 " " 1837,	12,152	154,103	269	33,138	12,421	187,241	199,662	83.27	16.73	16,768	188,469	5,179	3,547	22,225	1,400,705	1,442,930
" 1837 " " 1838,	16,712	229,755	405	56,865	17,117	286,620	303,737	81.14	18.86	12,862	286,866	924	2,245	17,689	1,783,808	1,801,497
" 1838 " " 1839,	9,975	148,285	537	53,917	10,512	202,202	212,714	74.40	25.60	11,756	203,977	2,168	3,994	16,292	1,344,240	1,360,532
" 1839 " " 1840,	19,310	228,191	459	59,719	19,769	287,910	307,679	80.44	19.56	18,353	287,317	752	3,401	26,555	2,151,280	2,177,835
" 1840 " 31st Aug. 1841,	12,840	148,208	930	60,589	13,770	208,797	222,567	72.36	27.64	14,063	209,653	1,045	3,507	20,265	1,614,680	1,634,945
1st Sept. 1841 " " 1842,	14,119	184,705	341	70,442	14,460	255,147	269,607	73.75	26.25	13,731	255,439	316	3,659	20,461	1,663,113	1,683,574
" 1842 " " 1843,	16,351	257,035	681	78,523	17,032	335,558	352,590	77.54	22.46	17,666	339,233	950	7,334	24,291	2,354,584	2,378,875
" 1843 " " 1844,	15,043	166,290	1,148	123,023	16,191	289,313	305,504	59.36	40.64	15,680	296,142	439	13,097	19,138	2,011,271	2,030,409
" 1844 " " 1845,	20,905	288,870	423	111,698	21,328	400,568	421,896	73.42	26.58	21,499	401,221	610	10,269	28,472	2,366,031	2,394,503
" 1845 " " 1846,	19,527	160,233	476	87,841	20.00	248,074	268,077	67.06	32.94	20,696	145,211	1,503	7,406	30,201	2,070,336	2,100,537
" 1846 " " 1847,	10,869	179,467	698	156,064	11,567	335,531	347,098	54.84	45.16	14,457	353,587	4,193	25,462	21,105	1,757,546	1,778,651
" 1847 " " 1848,	15,345	183,501	685	98,061	16,030	281,562	297,592	66.82	33.18	13,506	269,908	1,669	12,416	21,725	2,325,909	2,347,634

* For explanation of Sea Island Crops, see article "Cotton," page 105.

† See Note in the Detailed Tables, page 92.

‡ The Upland Crops of these first six years are the exports from the United States, given in Tables page 110.

₴ From this period the total Crops of the United States are those made up by the "New York Shipping and Commercial List."

EXPORTS OF RICE FROM CHARLESTON.

	EXPORTS.							PER CENTUM.						
	Foreign.		*Coastwise.*		*Foreign and Coastwise.*		†Exp't of Tcs. & R.rice reduced to Tcs. at 21 bushels.	Propn. in 100 Tcs. exported		* Proportion in 100 Tierces of Clean and Rough exported.		Receipts at Charleston.	†Stock on the last day of the year.	‡Rice Crops.
	Tierces	Bushels R. Rice.	Tierces.	Bushels R. Rice.	Tierces.	Bushels R. Rice.	Tierces.	In Tierces	In R.R reduc'd to Tcs. at 21 bush.	For'gn	Coast.	Tierces.	Tcs.	Tierces.
1st Oct. 1819 to 30th Sept. 1820,.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	64,153	.....ę	64,153	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	88,820
" 1820 " " 1821,.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	75,366	.....	75,366	.....	.....	.....	.....	98,336	.....	115,591
" 1821 " " 1822,.....	67,131	.....	11,030	ę	78,161	.....	78,161	.....	.....	ę	.....	.....	.....	100,907
" 1822 " " 1823,.....	68,014	.....	12,384	"	80,398	.....	80,398	.....	.....	"	.....	90,222	.....	103,252
" 1823 " " 1824,.....	79,830	106,407	17,273	"	97,103	106,407	102,170	.....	.....	"	.....	.....	.....	125,973
" 1824 " " 1825,.....	69,750	66,853	19,653	"	89,403	66,853	92,587	.....	.....	"	.....	.....	.....	110,222
" 1825 " " 1826,.....	76,534	128,750	12,528	"	89,062	128,750	95,193	.....	.....	"	.....	.....	.....	117,248
" 1826 " " 1827,.....	89,181	170,007	11,266	"	100,447	170,007	108,543	.....	.....	"	.....	.....	.....	132,811
" 1827 " " 1828,.....	96,618	198,617	15,013	"	111,631	198,617	121,089	.....	.....	"	.....	.....	.....	145,678
" 1828 " " 1829,.....	80,620	248,724	31,567	.....	112,187	248,724	124,031	90.45	9.55	74.55	25.45	.....	.....	155,730
" 1829 " " 1830,.....	78,262	171,834	29,058	.....	107,320	171,834	115,503	92.92	7.08	74.84	25.16	123,101	2,240	145,943
" 1830 " " 1831,.....	62,176	196,881	30,206	.....	92,382	196,881	101,757	90.79	9.21	70.32	29.68	110,072	1,540	135,586
" 1831 " " 1832,.....	67,018	268,164	38,212	.....	105,230	268,164	117,999	89.18	10.82	67.02	32.38	127,392	1,891	151,925
" 1832 " " 1833,.....	75,440	315,202	47,254	.....	122,694	315,202	137,703	89.10	10.90	65.68	34.32	143,473	1,547	178,255
" 1833 " " 1834,.....	65,715	363,793	31,099	13,719	96,814	377,512	114,791	84.34	15.66	72.34	27.66	118,762	2,084	145,371
" 1834 " " 1835,.....	60,401	317,594	40,760	41,788	101,161	359,382	118,275	85.53	14.47	63.86	36.14	124,256	1,859	151,000
" 1835 " " 1836,.....	62,019	356,752	46,438	30,307	108,457	387,059	126,888	85.47	14.53	62.27	37.73	133,533	1,923	168,851
" 1836 " " 1837,.....	49,384	512,808	39,710	22,999	89,094	535,807	114,608	77.74	22.26	64.40	35.60	119,917	524	150,958
" 1837 " " 1838,.....	35,493	336,442	29,913	19,399	65,406	355,841	82,351	79.42	20.58	62.55	37.45	90,385	1,936	119,341
" 1838 " " 1839,.....	41,222	470,312	35,202	22,950	76,424	493,262	99,912	76.49	23.51	63.67	36.3	106,001	913	136,583
" 1839 " " 1840,.....	48,248	431,506	31,591	.....	79,839	431,506	100,387	79.53	20.47	68.53	31.47	107,108	835	140,243
" 1840 " 31st Aug. 1841,.....	53,571	455,592	25,232	15,489	78,803	471,081	101,236	77.84	22.16	74.35	25.65	107,052	452	140,421
1st Sept. 1841 " " 1842,.....	54,516	445,685	34,038	2,870	88,554	448,555	109,914	80.57	19.43	68.91	31.09	117,994	1,332	150,422
" 1842 " " 1843,.....	57,574	294,018	57,701	6,519	115,275	300,537	129,586	88.96	11.04	55.23	44.77	136,733	1,177	175,049
" 1843 " " 1844,.....	59,964	483,595	43,265	5,027	103,229	488,622	126,497	81.61	18.39	65.61	34.39	135,561	2,591	176,293
" 1844 " " 1845,.....	43,351	561,409	40,970	.....	84,321	561,409	111,054	75.93	24.07	63.11	36.89	117,939	1,496	160,597
" 1845 " " 1846,.....	38,038	346,230	45,666	8,909	83,704	355,139	100,615	83.19	16.81	54.19	45.81	111,407	2,688	156,928
" 1846 " " 1847,.....	65,970	489,363	48,211	9,395	114,181	498,758	137,931	82.78	17.22	64.72	35.28	146,266	1,017	192,462
" 1847 " " 1848,.....	44,410	420,419	51,500	1,960	95,910	422,379	116,023	82.66	17.34	55.53	44.47	126,673	915	170,771

* This per centage is calculated on the exports only, the city consumption having been thrown out.
† Exclusive of the stock of Rough Rice at the Mills.
‡ For explanation of Rice Crops, see article "Rice," page 112.
ę See Note in Detailed Tables, page 92.

2. MEMPHIS IMPROVEMENTS, BUSINESS, &c.

[We take pleasure in publishing the following gratifying evidence of the progress of Memphis.—Ed.]

The course of Memphis is still onward; her business of all kinds, trade, commerce and population steadily increasing; new houses, as well for business as family residences, are being erected in various quarters; and, everything, in short, manifests unmistakeable evidences of a thriving and growing community.

There is now little doubt that the Memphis and Charleston railroad will soon be put under contract, and completed in some two or three years—for it can just as well be done in this time, as in twenty or thirty years. This will add greatly to our trade; and add in an equal ratio to the prosperity of every interest, as well as to the population of our city. The right spirit is also beginning to manifest itself in regard to the improvement of the public roads connecting Memphis with the interior, as well as in the erection of manufacturing establishments of various kinds, which will be more particularly noticed in our next.

We have been highly gratified at another fact intimately connected not only with the interests of Memphis, but of the surrounding country, also: we allude to the great decrease in the number of trading boats lying at our landings in the last year or two compared with former periods. This proves either that our planters and farmers are producing themselves those necessary articles for which they have heretofore been dependent upon the industry and thrift of other States, or that the business of selling these articles has become more regular and legitimate by being transferred to established houses both on and under the bluff.

Whilst most of the heavy, or auction, grocery and produce business is done upon Front Row, Main street bids fair, and that before long, to be the great dry and fancy goods street of the city; from the fact, that it is the handsomest, and dryest, and least dusty, and less blocked up with persons, packages, boxes and barrels, and less bustling and noisy than Front street; and, of course, the very street where the ladies "most will congregate," promenade, and do their shopping. Indeed, there is much of this business, wholesale and retail, now done upon this street, by houses of well established reputation; as well as much produce, grocery and commission business.

The finest block of business houses upon Main street is that occupied by Messrs. S. & A Fowlkes & Co., J. Banks & Co., J. H. Stephenson & Co., and J. A. Fransioli & Co. These are opposite the United States hotel; and the best fitted up and arranged, with reference to comfort, convenience and safety, are those occupied by the Messrs. Fowlkes—indeed, we have not seen them surpassed *anywhere* in these respects. Their produce, grocery and commission department is on the south-east corner of Main and Adams streets, and adjoining it is their dry goods store. These are kept warm in cold weather by furnaces and flues, conveying the requisite amount of heat to every part of the buildings. In the cellar is a capacious cistern in which is placed a forcing pump for raising the water to a reservoir at the top of the house, from which water is conducted to every room in both houses by means of pipes. Attached to the forcing pump is one hundred feet of hose, by which fire can be promptly extinguished without the aid of fire engines. These houses are well filled with all the articles proper to each, and are doing a very extensive and profitable business. They have also contracted for the erection of a fire proof warehouse for the storing of cotton, &c., in the rear of the block spoken of. This will be 148 long, by 58 7½ feet broad.

☞ The cellars are dug for two other buildings of similar height and dimensions, which will make the block complete, and its whole length one hundred and forty-eight feet. These will be erected by H. B. Joiner and Charles Jones.

DEPARTMENT OF AGRICULTURE.

1. CULTURE OF COTTON IN BRITISH INDIA.

It is important that our planters keep steadily before them what the British government is doing, or is likely to do, in its vast India possessions, in regard to the cultivation of cotton. In this view, we have heretofore, and shall from

time to time hereafter, cull from the papers, in that quarter, whatever touches the general subject.

INDIA COTTON CULTURE.

We discussed, at considerable length, last week, the all-important question of a commission to India, to investigate thoroughly the real nature of the impediments that prevent the extension of cotton cultivation in the presidencies most favorable to its growth. Mr. Bright has already presented to the House of Commons, a petition from the Manchester Chamber of Commerce, embodying its views on this subject, and praying for a full and impartial inquiry through the medium of a government commission. The honorable member for Manchester has, also, given notice of his intention to move for the appointment of such a commission; and we are glad to see that active exertions are in progress to strengthen his hands, by an effective representation of the opinions of the mercantile classes of Manchester, on this important subject. A petition now lies in the Exchange, which has already received the signatures of upward of two hundred of the principal merchants and manufacturers of this district. The following is the petition:

TO THE HONORABLE THE COMMONS OF THE UNITED KINGDOM OF GREAT BRITAIN AND IRELAND, IN PARLIAMENT ASSEMBLED.

The petition of the undersigned, merchants, manufacturers and other inhabitants of Manchester and Salford, and their vicinities,

Showeth—That, for the last four years, the cotton manufacture of this country, which, in a healthy state, supplies nearly one-half of the whole value of British exports, has been subjected to most injurious disturbances through an inadequate supply of the raw material, for which, from its nature, this country is wholly dependent upon imports from warmer climates.

That it is of vital consequence to every interest in this kingdom, that a trade, in which so vast an amount of fixed capital is embarked, which distributes such immense sums, weekly, among a population dependent on them, and which influences the well-being of every consumer in the State, in proportion as it is in a prosperous or a depressed condition, should be as little as possible liable to pernicious fluctuations from a deficient supply of its first requisite.

That, to engender steadiness of supply, it has become of absolute necessity, that the sources whence cotton may be obtained, should be immediately multiplied.

That, in looking to the countries capable of producing cotton, your petitioners first fix their attention upon India, because the plant is there indigenous, and the cultivation of it has been pursued for centuries. They see, however, with regret, that while the use of cotton manufactures has increased with an almost incredible rapidity, in countries which cannot produce the raw material, India, which has so long possessed the raw material and a population adequate to the production of any quantity, has not, from the inferiority and want of improvement of the quality of her cotton, participated with other and younger countries in the supply of it.

That your petitioners believe that the supineness of India, in the improvement of her cotton, has not arisen from the unfitness either of the soil or climate. The government of India, at great cost and with much apparent earnestness, have endeavored to arouse the native population to a sense of their own interest, in this respect; but the experiments have mainly, if not entirely, failed, and the hopes of relief from that quarter, so hopeful by nature, are becoming faint, and the benefits which a more enlarged intercourse with this country would confer upon India, are repressed.

That it is in evidence before your honorable house, that large portions of India are well suited to the production of cotton—your petitioners are anxious to have it ascertained, by means of an inquiry that may leave no doubt, what have been the causes which have restrained India from so improving the quality of her cotton, as to enable her to compete with the cottons of other countries in the British market; and as such an inquiry could not but be most useful in displaying the economical condition of the people of India, and in providing data whereby your honorable house may, at the proper time, be better enabled to consider whether the system heretofore applied to India is such as is best calculated to excite the energies of the people, to lead to industry and well-being, and to

develop the resources of the country; and being desirous only that the truth should be made manifest, and that errors in government, if errors exist, should be corrected.

Your petitioners humbly pray, that, for the benefit both of this country and of India, and for the useful guidance of the legislature, your honorable house may address her Majesty to appoint, forthwith, a royal commission, to make strict inquiry within the presidencies of Bombay and Madras into the causes which have prevented the increase of the cultivation and the improvement of the quality of the cotton grown within them.

The capabilities of India, for the growth of any quantity of raw cotton, are unquestioned. The difficulties that impede its cultivation, arise from the causes that spring from the very nature of the government, and are remediable only by an entire change in its financial and internal policy. These causes are to be found chiefly in the impoverishment and exhaustion of the material resources of the people—the utter absence of all encouragement, on the part of the government, to any improvement in the means of communication—a wasteful and injurious system of taxation, that strikes at the very root of industrial enterprise, and which denies everything like security or protection to the capital, as well as to the labor, of the cultivator. The government of India assumes to be the landlord of every portion of the soil, and derives the main bulk of its revenue from a direct tax on the produce of the land. Now, if this were a fixed amount, equitably levied, not by an arbitrary assumption on the part of the government, of a right to determine what proportion of the whole produce would constitute a sufficient remuneration for the skill, industry and capital of the cultivator, but on a fair valuation of the intrinsic worth of the mere use of the soil, as an implement of production, this form of taxation would probably be the least injurious in which it could fall upon the tax-payer. But the assessment of the Indian land tax is both arbitrary and capricious. As a rule, it is excessive as well as fluctuating; and the natural consequence is, to deprive industry of all stimulus by destroying the only incentive which can sustain it—the certainty of reaping the full fruits of its own skill and perseverance. Experience sufficiently shows us, in this country, how powerful the tenantcy-at-will system has been in checking agricultural improvements, although the great majority of landed proprietors were not disposed to deal harshly or unjustly with enterprising or improving occupiers. The mere liability to have the fruits of their industry torn from them, has operated like a blight on the energy of our farmers, and maintained the produce of the soil far below its natural capabilities. How, then, must the same principle have worked in India, where the landlord was not the 'squire of the parish, influenced by local ties and associations, but the government of a huge territory, constantly under the pressure of financial exigencies, and interested in raising the largest revenue in the most summary way? How could industry, capital or cultivation, increase under a system where the amount of produce was invariably made the criterion for determining the tax-paying capabilities of any particular district? For this, unquestionably, has been the practice of the Indian government in most of the collectorates. In the able report of the Bombay commission, made three years ago, the evils of a fluctuating assessment to the land tax are very clearly shown. But a much more important fact is also substantiated by the same document, viz.: that a *fixed* assessment, though bearing a large proportion to the gross *average* produce, than a fluctuating one formed on the actual estimates of each year's standing crop, is much more favorable to cultivation and industry. But the facts stated in this report, not only show the advantages of a fixed, over a fluctuating estimate, but prove, most conclusively, that a low *fixed* assessment tends rapidly to increase cultivation, and is more favorable to the revenue than a high one. In the collectorate of Broach, the report informs us that the fluctuating was changed for a high fixed assessment; while, in the Shalopore collectorate, a similar change was made to a fair or low fixed assessment. What was the result of this experiment, in the two districts only, in twelve years, with a *high* but fixed assessment—from 1834 to 1846? In the district of Broach, the total land under cultivation increased only from 590,000 beegas to 610,000; while, in Shalopore, with a *low* assessment, the quantity of cultivated land increased from 409,000 to 1,713,000 beegas: so that, not only was the revenue obtained from the low assessment much greater than it would have been with a

high one, but the cultivated surface was increased, in this collectorate, above 400 per cent.

A government commission, despatched to India, expressly to investigate the operation of the land-tax assessments in all the cotton growing districts, would supply a vast fund of facts illustrative of the destructive effects of the present loose and arbitrary system of taxation. Whether India can, or, can not, successfully compete with the cotton growing States of America, such an inquiry would, at any rate, conduce most materially to her prosperity, by revealing the real impediments with which our system of government fetters her resources and harasses the industry of her people. The position of Lancashire is every year becoming more critical, and the necessity more imperative for some decisive attempt to ascertain whether or not our possessions in British India can be made conducive to the greater security of our staple manufacture. The accounts, which every successive steamer now brings, from the other side of the Atlantic, with reference to the deficiency of the last cotton crop, and the apparently unfavorable season for the planting of the new one, render it more than ever important that some decisive steps should be taken to render us less dependent upon a single soil and climate for our future supplies. We trust, therefore, that the exertions which are now making will induce the government to accede to the motion of Mr. Bright, and that both the Manchester Chamber of Commerce and the Commercial Association will cordially co-operate to bring the whole weight and influence of the mercantile community of Manchester to bear upon what we cannot otherwise designate than as a great national necessity.—*Manchester Examiner.*

CULTIVATION OF COTTON IN INDIA.

As we have repeatedly explained, the transport of cotton from the fields to the port of shipment, as at present conducted, is all but fatal to the character of the staple, and even to the profits of the traders. Until some substitute is found for the miserable bullock-droves, which now supply the only means of carriage, it is quite impossible that a fair trial can be given to the cotton-producing qualities of India. Yet, at this point, also, the personal intervention of English agents might be of infinite service, for their reports would convey authentic information as to facts, and when these facts have been duly appreciated, we are entitled to anticipate with confidence that capital would be no longer wanting to establish all the requisite communications between one port of India and another. At present, the very name of a railroad has been brought into unfortunate disrepute by the results of improvident speculation and scandalous mismanagement. But these miscarriages should serve rather to guide than to deter, and with warnings so impressive, and so fair a field as India for the revival of enterprise, results of a widely different character might be safely expected. Above all, it must be remembered that our choice is not absolutely free. Cotton we *must* have, and though some aid may be, perhaps, contributed from miner sources, it is evident to all who have considered the subject, that in India alone can be found any permanent or effectual safeguard against such contingencies as have suggested the present remarks.

There is, we fear, little room left for doubting that the apprehensions which have been repeatedly expressed, for the steadiness of our cotton supplies, will receive an unpleasant verification in the imports of the ensuing season. Already have the results of last year's deficiencies become sensible. It is not anticipated that the total shipments to England, from the American ports during the present season, will exceed 1,000,000 bales. They have, hitherto, not reached 950,000; and, indeed, the total exports since the first of last September, have been fully 500,000 bales below those of 1849, and 200,000 below those of 1848. Last year the shipments to England, during the first half of the month of April, were 84,000 bales; this year the return, for the corresponding period, gives an export of only 29,000—showing a decrease of nearly two-thirds. Facts, like these, read us an impressive lesson upon our position and our perils. Cotton is scarcely less indispensable to us than corn; whereas, while in one case we can command the resources of the entire globe, by the immutable laws of demand and supply, in the other we are virtually dependent on the produce of a single State and the variations of a single climate. The cotton plant is as liable to injury as the vine, and a bad crop is as probable an event as a bad vintage: yet, against so

disastrous a contingency, in spite of repeated warnings, we have made no provision whatever.

It is true that the attention of the manufacturing districts have been awakened to the hazards of their position, and directed toward the real source of security; but though all parties seem prepared to co-operate in the work, there has been, as yet, nothing effected toward the production of a tangible result. The East India Company has expended vast pains and considerable sums, in testing the agricultural capabilities of their territory; and the Manchester Chamber of Commerce has memorialized government in furtherance of the same ends. It has been ascertained, on one side, that India can unquestionably produce cotton of admirable quality, in abundance, sufficient for all the demands of England; and it is confessed, on the other, that the opening of such a source of supply would be extremely acceptable. To complete the unanimity of purpose, the finances of India are in such a condition that any measure tending to increase the exports and revenue of the country, would be in a high degree opportune and serviceable. If, therefore, certain proceedings would conduce, at one and the same time, to the prosperity of India and the security of Manchester, and are, besides, notoriously practicable, why is the result not achieved without further delay?

The first necessity of a cultivator, is food. In this country, as in most parts of Europe, any agricultual produce can find a market and secure a safe return in money; but in India, the cultivator has no such guarantee. He has no certain market within reach, nor has he the means of transmitting his produce, however intrinsically saleable it may be, to markets at a greater distance. Unless, therefore, his crop be of such a kind as will serve in the last resort for his own consumption, he is liable to the extremities of want. Suppose, for example, that he plants his fields with cotton, and that, by aid of a favorable season, he raises a respectable crop, he is, perhaps, hundreds of miles from the cotton markets of the coast, to which he has no means of access. In other countries, such conditions of cultivation would call into being a class of inland merchants, whose trade it would be to purchase the crops on the fields of their growth, and collect them for transmission to the exporters. In India, no such class of agents exist. The inland trader is a man without enterprise, capital or knowledge, who would simply avail himself of such circumstances as we have supposed, to lie in wait for the unfortunate cultivator, and secure his cotton at a nominal price when he was on the verge of starvation. But, by growing edible grains, the ryot escapes such straits as these. In the worst of cases he can pay his modicum of rent in kind, and reserve the remainder of his crop for his own subsistence. By such means, he makes himself independent of merchants or markets—nor can it be any matter of surprise that he adopts them. The consequence is, that, in the interior of the Deccan, where the best cotton lands lie, cotton is not grown upon one field in fifty capable of producing it—and thus, no material supplies have ever found their way to England.

The remedy for this is so obvious and simple, that it scarcely needs to be indicated. What is primarily required, is a class of Indian traders, sufficiently intelligent and provided with sufficient means to take the cotton from the ryot, at a money price, which will renumerate him for his labor, and encourage him to renew the experiment. There is no want of acuteness in the native cultivators. The capabilities of various lands, and the values of various descriptions of produce, are computed and known, to a nicety, and the preference would be invariably given to the more remunerative crops, if there were accessible markets for all. At present, grain of the coarsest kind is grown, not because the land will not bear cotton, but because cotton will not yield food. Whenever such arrangements can be made, that cotton becomes readily convertible into money, it will supercede grain to any extent required. As for the land tax, it will be seen how correct were our calculations in attributing no weight at all to this alleged burden on agriculture. With rent and dues of all kinds, at eighteen pence an acre, no man can well complain of taxation.

The Manchester Chamber of Commerce has thus received a very promising, and certainly not an impracticable, suggestion. The agents of English mercantile houses are stationed all over the world—in all climates, and under all governments—from Hong Kong to Vera Cruz—from Hudson's Bay to the coast of Africa. Why should not such an element of commercial success be introduced into India?—*London Times.*

COTTON CULTURE IN THE BRITISH POSSESSIONS.

The following article appears as editorial in Wilmer and Smith's European Times of April twentieth:

"The law of supply and demand, is the leverage which moves the commercial world. When an indispensable article of consumption becomes scarce, the value, as a natural consequence, rises in the market, just as it falls in value when there is a superabundance. Applying this uncontrovertible fact to cotton, you would imagine, to hear certain sapient persons talk, that they desired a bill of indictment against the whole of the southern planters, because they cannot control the seasons, and furnish abundance of the raw material for all the spindles in the world. These grumblers forget that the grower can no more regulate the price of cotton, than he can mete out the sunshine which feeds, or the frost which kills, the plant. The southernors engaged in the cultivation of the staple, might justly retort upon the lords of cottonopolis, in the language of the ancient Briton: 'If Cæsar can hide the sun with a blanket, and put the moon in his pocket, we'll pay tribute to him for light.'

"At the same time, when the equilibrium of prices has been destroyed by an unlooked for casualty—when exclusive dependence upon a particular country, for an essential article of commerce, is found to interfere with the legitimate course of capital and labor—it becomes, not only necessary, but imperative, to look elsewhere for a supply, fully equal to the requiremenis of the times, so as to be provided for every contingency; and in this spirit we can discern nothing to censure, but, on the contrary, much to commend, in the pains which are now taken to procure a supply of cotton from other parts of the world, to compensate for the unquestionable deficiency of the American crop.

"Much has been said and written about the capabilities of India, to send us as much cotton as we require, and, to a certain degree of faith in the capacity of that country, may be traced the anxiety with which the public has watched the formation of Indian railways, and the engerness with which the progress and commpletion have been regarded. The East India Company has partaken largely of this feeling, and has extended a helping hand to two companies which have taken the field, and for which acts of Parliament were passed in the last season. One of these companies will cut a line from Calcutta to Delhi; the other a line from Bombay to Kalliar, in the direction of the great cotton field of Ghauts. These undertakings may be regarded as in practical operation, for the East India Company has guaranteed a dividend on the outlay, which makes their completion a matter of certainty. A third line from Madras to Arcot is also projected; but whether it will struggle into existence is, at present, somewhat questionable. Nevertheless, grave doubts exist, whether the best internal communication in the world would enable India to grow cotton in quantities sufficient to affect the price in the home market. At present India grows little more than is required for its own consumption and the export trade to China; and as to quality, it is impossible, under any circumstances, that the cotton of India can ever compete with the long staple of America.

"Port Natal is also mentioned, with encouragement, as a cotton growing district; but the smallness of the population, and the fact that no vessel has ever yet sailed from D'Urban, the only port in the colony, direct to England, shows that a long period must elapse ere its developments can produce tangible results.

"The most feasible scheme of the many which has been broached, is one put forward by the owners of property in British Guiana. The West India Association, in their petitions to parliament, as well as in their memorial to the colonial secretary, make out a strong case on behalf of the West Indies generally, and of Demarara more especially. The labor question is at the bottom of all our West India difficulties. Every plan adopted since the emancipation of the black population, to secure a sufficiency of labor, has failed, and the association ask, through Mr. F. Sand, their chairman, permission to engage blacks on the coast of Africa, on the plan which the British factories on the river Bonny adopt with the natives of the Kroo coast—namely, to hire them, say for five years, at the expiration of which they can return, if they desire it, to their native country. In the estimation of many persons, this would be equivalent to a renewal of the slave trade; but if similar arrangements were permitted in the case of the coolies, and in the one referred to—that of the Kroo blacks—we can see no sufficient reason why precautions might not be taken on the African

coast as well as at Demarara, to protect the blacks who might willingly enter into these engagements, from the possibility of wrong or injury. To no higher practical end could the naval force which excites Mr. Hutt's antipathy be directed, and, under judicious regulation, the moral and physical condition of the laborers, instead of being deteriorated, would, in reality, be improved and elevated, by the boon which the West India Association solicit at the hands of government and the country. If the experiment were tried in British Guiana, it might, if successful, be extended to the West India islands.

In the meantime, the southern planters of America, stimulated by the prices which now prevail, have every inducement to extend the cultivation of cotton with, if possible, increased power and capital. Probably the next crop may, in its amplitude, compensate for the shortness of the last one, and the outcry which now exists for other fields of cultivation in various quarters of the globe, would, in the event of such a result, correspondingly abate. But at the same time they will read the signs which are every day passing around them very imperfectly, if they do not perceive a fixed determination, on the part of the merchants and the manufacturers of this country, and its government, to rely less exclusively than heretofore on the cotton of the United States.

Experientia docet.

2. WEST INDIA MODE OF SUGAR CULTURE.

[The following essay received, several years ago, the prize of one hundred guineas, offered by Lord Elgin, then governor of Jamaica, for the best practical treatise upon the subject. We have supposed it might interest our planters to know what systems th· · ıeighbors have been adopting, though no great practical good be derived from the information.—Ed.]

Commence by subdividing the old cane-fields, or such parts of them as may be suitable to receive the plow, into sections, by substantial and durable fences, and in the most convenient manner to save fencing and promote draining. Fences may be growing fences, or ditch and penguin. As ditches may be necessary in many parts, in carrying out the principle of draining and retaining water for stock, they will be found beneficial, and may be planted on the top of the bank with any of the growing fences found on experience to be the most substantial, durable and least expensive, and least likely to harbor rats.

The next important duty is to drain the land by under-drains, which can be dug by machinery, the tiles necessary for draining being made on the spot, by machinery. These points accomplished are the most expensive outlay at the commencement, but will be attended by a durable benefit. The next duty is to manure the land as high as you possibly can, by penning it over with horned stock, or sheep, or stable, or cattle pen dung, given in any way by which its virtues are saved to the soil, covering the pens immediately after they are removed, with a coat of loam, or if stiff clayey land, with lime or marl. This done, close-plow the land with a common single "Wilkie's" plow, seven inches deep, following in the same furrow with the sub-soil, going to sixteen inches into the sub-soil, or deeper, if possible. Then roll and harrow the land, extracting the weeds and grass, and open it into cane holes with a deep single plow, cleaning out the holes with a deep double-breasted plow. Your next duty is to plant them, giving the canes an opportunity of growing in their favorite manner in clusters, or stools, and not in single file along the row. As you plant, cover the bank and cane-bed with cane-trash, dry grass, or any other suitable covering, with a view to keep down grass and weeds, and to protect the soil from that exhalation, which, in tropical climates, is so rapid and so detrimental to land. By these means the plant canes will give very little trouble until they are fit to take the bank, which can be given with the plow. Cane land, so managed, will require very little labor in weeding or hoeing, the principal part of such work being performed with suitable light plows, drills, harrows, scarificators and other agricultural implements now in use in the United Kingdom. They not only eradicate grass and weeds, but turn up the soil and scatter seeds and manures of every kind, thereby saving a world of labor.

The principal part of the plowing and other field work, should be performed by horses, in which case three plowmen, six boys and eight good plow horses,

with the assistance of steers occasionally to break stiff land, or in sub-soiling it, will be sufficient to plow, sub-soil, roll and harrow, drill, scarify, mold and hoe, all the various crops on the model sugar farm, with the aid of a small gang occasionally to plant, weed, trash, heap and turn out manure, fencing, &c.

While on the subject of plowing, it may be as well to remark, that as the plow is now coming into general use throughout the island, and its beneficial effects freely admitted and tolerably well understood ,all that remains for me, is to point out some improvement. The team of horses or steers should be brought as close as possible to the beam of the plow, and exactly in the center. They should then walk with a quick step without stopping.

It is proved beyond a doubt by the British farmers, that the work is better performed and with greater ease to the stock, when the horses in the plow go at the rate of three miles an hour, than when traveling at the rate of one mile in the same space of time. Repeated stoppages and going slow, are fagging both to man and beast, and detrimental to the quantity and quality of the work. Oxen may be so trained, as to perform excellent work without flogging.

They ought to be stall-fed during the plow season, on a mixture of hay, corn and grass, and kept exclusively for the plow. The same rule should be extended to the plow horses, with the addition of being well groomed twice a day. When the plow does not take the ground, or is otherwise out of order, the means of repairing and altering it should be on the estate.

RATOONS

Should be plow-molded every year, during which operation any of the chemical or lately discovered manures may be applied, such as are found by experience to be congenial to the nature of that specific soil which is drawn by analysis. By analyzing the soil and the compost, or other chemical manure, it is soon found which description of manure will be most beneficial; or well-digested cattle pen or stable manure, harrowed into the bank so broken, and covered over with the trash so taken off, when clearing for the plow. This may be done by a couple of smart boys going before the plow, raking the trash on the bank last cut by the plow, and so on in rotation to the end of the piece; or a raker drawn by one horse may be invented to remove the trash. By this simple process, canes may be kept ratooning as long as you like. The plow-molding, with the application of manure in the bank, may be done at an early stage, that is, when the sprouts make their appearance.

As the canes are covering the ground, or soon after, the soil may be again disturbed, either by a light single one-horse plow, or by a scarificator, harrow-drill or horse-hoe, or such of them as the sugar farmer, on experience, finds to be most beneficial. By cutting the rooty fibers of the canes that push out in collateral directions, fresh ones immediately replace them, and take up such nourishment as they can find in the newly cut bank; a reinforcement of suckers will be the result, while fresh stability is added to the mother cane. It is to this end I recommend dung and manures annually for the ratoons, which, if properly done, places them pretty nearly on an equality with the plant canes, and planters of experience know that the cheapest sugar is that produced from ratoons under the old system, and it will be doubly so under mine. When you determine on throwing out a piece of ratoons, I recommend a rotation of crops, such as Guinea corn, Indian corn and green crops of the most beneficial descriptions, for benefiting the land and affording food both for man and beast. They may be of plantains, cocoes, cassadoes, ochres, peas and beans; yams, sweet potatoes, pumpkins, melons and turnips, if you can succeed in this hot climate. Next comes artificial grasses, to be planted before or after the green crops. At this stage, you have the sample estate dividend in the different crops—canes, corn, fallow and green crops, and a part in artificial grasses, sufficient to make hay for the stable, cutting grass for the pens, and sufficient feeding for your stock. By this rotation of crops, you improve and benefit the land and produce good crops at a very moderate expense, and with one-fourth of the manual labor necessary under the old system. The greatest attention should be paid to making manure in the field and at the works—the drainings of the stables and cattle-pens should be preserved, and carted out to the field where most required. The compound qualities of this manure are very powerful. A few boys and mule carts would materially assist in carting out manure—bringing feeding for

the pens and stable, and carting loam, lime, marl, or any other ingredient deemed necessary to improve the land. After the first two years necessary to lay the foundation of this work, a small plant will be sufficient—say, at the utmost, from 20 to 25 acres a year, which, after a routine of crops, and for years fed on by horned stock, horses, sheep, poultry and hogs—the land being in the first instance fenced, drained and sub-soiled—should, with moderate penning, give splendid returns in plants and ratoons.

DRAINING AND SUB-SOILING,

Being of the greatest benefit in producing large crops and improving the soil, I may as well give an idea of their merits. The old system of draining by open trenches, was detrimental to the land during heavy rains, as a quantity of loose soil and manure were washed away into the gulleys and rivers. The land not being sub-soiled, the rain could not penetrate far into the soil; the land became caked with a few days of hot sun, which proved detrimental to vegetation. When any quantity of moisture was retained on the surface, or in the upper strata, it heated and scalded the canes, while in the fall of the year or wintry months, it chilled them—in either case, checking vegetation and producing booty and woody joints, and thereby poor returns. The land being under-drained and sub-soiled 16 to 18 inches deep, the moisture soaks down through the soil into the sub-soil, from whence it escapes by the under drains, leaving its chemical benefits in the soil while passing through it.

By this means, in a dry season, the canes or other crops receive sufficient coolness and moisture by evaporation from the sub-soil, which for the most part being stiff and clayey, continues cool and moist. It is a well-known chemical fact, that all the essential airs necessary for the preservation and benefit of the animal and vegetable world, are contained in the clouds and reach the earth in wind and rain. Rain water being highly charged with them, is deposited in the soil, giving a lively impulse to vegetation, and aiding the manures and natural stability of the soil—that is, when the land is under-drained and sub-soiled.

The drains are to be cut 30 inches deep, then lay a course of tiles on the bottom; after which, lay 12 inches of broken stones, to be covered on the top with sods, flat stones, slate tiles or boards, to prevent the loose soil from getting amongst the stones and injuring the drain. The tiles prevent the stones from sinking into the clay, by which means the drains will be of long duration.

The sub-soil plow must enter 16 inches deep, leaving two inches on the top of the drains, clear of the plow. The land must be sub-soiled across the drains.

MANURING, ETC.

A flock of sheep, consisting of from 200 to 300 head, and as many working steers, horses and mules, as may be necessary to carry on the trial sugar farm, with the assistance of some breeding stock necessary to supply it, and constantly fed on the sections of the cane fields thrown out to rest, and producing artificial grasses and green crops, would be sufficient to make 250 hogsheads.

Land so dressed, with a due regard to the laws of agricultural chemistry, and receiving an annual supply of manure, either simple or compound, such as are found by analysis or experience to agree best with the description of the soil, should average 2½ hogsheads (West India hogsheads average 18 cwt.) per acre through the crop, that is, from plants and ratoons. In this case, a field of 100 acres would be sufficient, putting in an annual plant of 25 acres and supplying the ratoons with manure. In addition to the necessary number of plow and cart men, very few field laborers would be required to plant, clean and trash the canes. The sugar farm should raise its own stock thus situated, and breed as many stock and horse-kind as would be sufficient to carry on his farm successfully.

European farm laborers, if properly managed, are fully competent to perform a large proportion of the work necessary on this sugar farm.

BOURBON AND COLORED CANES.

The saving of labor being a matter of vital importance, permit me to remark that the Bourbon cane, so much admired for its superior yielding, is a very expensive cane, giving great trouble, and before it comes to maturity, requiring a great deal of labor.

It is a delicate cane and very slow in its growth, requiring many cleanings before it covers the ground, and seldom takes a start until the fall of the year. It furnishes a scanty supply of dry leaves to cover the land and keep it cool. It gives a smaller proportion of tops to supply the cattle pens with feeding and to make manure, and it suffers more from trespass. It gives a smaller proportion of fuel compared to the other canes, and in every sense of the word, it is not, in these bad times, so good a poor man's cane as the Montblanc and blue canes and black transparent canes. From the prejudices that formerly existed against the colored canes, they have been planted on light sandy soils and in galls, in which the Bourbon cane could not long exist. But if these inferior canes were planted in your best lands, well manured, I am convinced they would, on an average of five or seven years, pay better than the Bourbon cane, and would, in this given period, in plants and ratoons, make as much sugar at nearly one-half of the expense. For example, they grow rapidly and cover the ground quickly, they throw a great quantity of dry trash on the ground, and have a large bushy top that affords ample shade for the roots.

Comparatively speaking, they require very little weeding and trashing; they give ample protection to the land, by a deep cover of trash; they suffer less from the trespass of stock, hogs and rats, and the people do not eat them as they do the Bourbon cane. They give a great quantity of feeding for stock and supply for the cattle-pens, and a larger quantity of trash from the mill than is necessary for fuel to manufacture the sugar. The overplus is a valuable ingredient for making manure, which may be fermented in cattle-pens, or in pits where it may receive dundar. The drainings of the stable and cattle-pens, the refuse of skimmings, the washings of cisterns, and all the sweepings and cleanings about the works may be added, and ashes, &c.

The white or Montblanc cane, comes next in quality to the Bourbon, and may be successfully planted in the same piece, say every alternate row or two of Bourbon, and one of white cane. By this mixture, the extra trash from the latter assists in making up the deficiencies of the former.

The white and other colored canes suffer less from drought and poverty of soil, and ratoon better and much longer than the Bourbon cane, as they do not empoverish the land, but tend to improve it with proper culture.

A great deal more may be said in carrying out these leading principles into practical detail, but they are too numerous for this paper.

3. COTTON BLOOMS, FROSTS AND CROPS.

The subjoined table will be read with curiosity, if not with profit, by our planting friends. It shows the date of bloom and frost, with the crop of each season, from 1836 to date:

Date of bloom.	*Date of frost.*	*Extent of crop.*
1836, 4th June.	14th October.	1,432,000 bales.
1837, 7th May.	27th October.	1,800,000 "
1838, 14th June.	7th October.	1,360,000 "
1839, 24th May.	7th November.	2,177,000 "
1840, 6th June.	17th October.	1,634,000 "
1841, 10th June.	15th October.	1,683,000 "
1842, 17th May.	1st November.	2,379,000 "
1843, 12th June.	15th October.	2,030,000 "
1844, 31th May.	30th October.	2,394,000 "
1845, 30th May.	3d November.	2,100,000 "
1846, 10th June.	1st November.	1,800,000 "
1847, 29th May.	27th November.	2,348,000 "
1848, 30th May.	20th November.	*2,700,000 "
1849, 15th June.	10th December.	2,000,000 "

* Of which 200,000 bales were left over from preceding season.

Taking the above as a criterion, we may as well prepare for a short crop. In Central Georgia there are no blooms yet, and no prospect of any before the 18th to the 24th of June. Judging from this, we are destined to have another short crop. True there has been more ground planted than usual; but, in many sections, immense tracts of rich cotton lands, which last year were cultivated, are under water, and cannot be planted this season.

4. SUGAR AND ITS USES.

The French people are great eaters of sugar, always carrying some of it about with them, in their pockets and reticules, and, generally, putting five or six lumps

into each cup of coffee. M. Chessat reports that sugar, when used as the exclusive, or principal article of diet, produces quite opposite effects in persons, according to the difference in their systems; for, while it fattens some, it creates bile, which induces a diarrhea, and a wasting of the solids, in other persons. The celebrated Bolivar had, by fatigue and privations, so injured the tone of his stomach, that he was unable, at times, to take any other food than sugar, which, in his case, was easy of digestion. His personal friends assure us, that, in some of his last campaigns, he lived, for weeks together, upon sugar alone, as a solid, with pure water as a liquid; but, probably, in nine hundred and ninety-nine cases out of a thousand, this diet would soon have brought the person adopting it to his grave; for, on those whose digestion is feeble, a large, or exclusive, allowance of sugar adds to their grievance, because the excess of nutriment, not being generally absorbed by their weakened system, becomes converted to bile, and causes great debility and wasting of the body. In seventeen experiments, made on dogs, M. Chessat observed, that, when the sugar diet fattened them, there was a general tendency to constipation meanwhile; and, on the contrary, when it produced an excess of bile in other dogs, their bowels were relaxed. Why English children suffer, in their digestion, after eating largely of sugar-plums, comfits, &c., is chiefly owing, however, to those delicacies being composed of the refuse of starch works, mixed with plaster of Paris, pipe clay and chalk, and having, indeed, as little sugar as will suffice to give them a palatable sweetness; and they are often colored with gamboge; and, sometimes, with red lead, verdigris, and other mineral poisons.

Everywhere, the beasts of the field, the reptiles, the fish and insects, are found to have a great liking for sugar and honey. Mr. Martin says he has tamed the most savage and vicious horses with sugar, and has seen the most ferocious animals domesticated by being partly fed upon it. The tamers of lions and tigers owe their power over them chiefly to a judicious use of sugar, and other sorts of sweets, and, also, of lavender water, and various other perfumes, of which feline animals are remarkably fond. In the sugar season, in the West Indies, the horses, mules and cattle, soon acquire a plumpness and strength by partaking of the leaving of the sugar canes, after the manufacturer has done with them. In Cochin-China, the elephants, buffaloes and horses, are all fattened with sugar. We learn, from the "Memoirs of Dr. Edw. Dartwright" (1843), that this ingenious man used to fatten sheep on sugar. To birds, this diet proved so nourishing, that the suppliers of the European poultry markets find that sugar, along with hemp seed and boiled wheat, will greatly fatten ruffs and reeves in the space of a fortnight.

5. ROSES.

The rose, in all countries, and in all times, has been held as the queen of flowers. The name, as it comes to us, is from the Greek *rodon;* it has relation to the color, red. The Greeks took their impression of the rose, and all matters of taste in the vegetable kingdom, from the Egyptians, Persians, and other nations of Asia. Everywhere it is the type of beauty and love. The Greeks had more taste than imagination, and they found, in their beautiful fables, the luxuriant growth of Oriental fancy. They have this tradition. The god of Love made a present to Harpocrates, the god of Silence, of a beautiful rose, the first that had been known, to engage him not to discover any of the secrets of his mother, Venus; and hence it has become a custom to have a rose placed in their rooms of mirth and entertainment, that, under the assurance thereof, they might lay aside all restraint, and speak what they pleased. Thus did the rose become a symbol of silence, and *sub rosa*, under the rose, denote as much as to be out of danger of any disclosure.

In India, and other portions of the East, the rose was commingled with sentiment and song. Its beauty and its perfume made it, in their imaginations, a match for the sweetest of nature's music, and hence the nightingale was married to the rose.

Flowers are delightful to all. The tasteful Athenians, who had a market for the sale of them, were obliged to pass sumptuary laws to restrain the extravagance of purchasers.

Such was the passion over every mind in the East for flowers, that from them has been made a universal language of friendship, affection and love. It is one of no difficult acquirement, and fragments have been diffused far and wide.

Roses are ornaments of the altar of hymen, while vases of lilies are placed upon the grave of youth and innocence.—*Samuel L. Knapp.*

6. HOUSES FOR NEGROES.

One of the most prolific sources of disease among negroes, is the condition of their houses and the manner in which they live. Small, low, tight and filthy, their houses can be but laboratories of disease; whilst on every side grow rancorous weeds and grass, interspersed with fruit trees, little patches of vegetables and fowl-houses effectually shading the ground, and preventing that free circulation of air so essential to the enjoyment of health in a quarter. Your correspondent has frequently detected the presence of worms, and sometimes in large numbers in negroes inhabiting houses thus conditioned and situated; so often, indeed, that he almost regarded their existence "as a matter of course." Nothing can be so deteriorating to the blood, and consequently to the secretions, as bad air. To be convinced of the truth of this assertion, your readers need but to refer to the "Reports of the Board of Health," in the nearest close-built and ill-ventilated cities and towns, and to the "sick lists" of hospitals, jails and ships. That fatal form of febrile disease, denominated "ship fever," though, to some extent, modified, has occurred repeatedly in negro houses. Not to contend for, in all probability, an admitted point, then, it may be concluded that it is important that planters should adopt some system or rule under the operation of which their negro houses shall be properly constructed, their quarters adequately ventilated and dried, and the manner of living among their negroes regulated.

It is a common custom with negroes to return in the evening from the field tired, and often in a perspiration, and lie down before their doors upon a board or bench and sleep till nine or ten o'clock, while the dew is falling and the atmosphere becomes cool and damp; instead of going into their houses and either lying down in bed or before a gentle fire, where the exhalation from the skin would be more gradual, and that chilliness consequent upon their sudden "cooling" would be avoided. Let planters go at this hour around their quarters, and feel the hands and feet of negroes thus conducting themselves, and they will no longer be in doubt as to the source of their "chills and fevers." Now, it is not the wish of your correspondent to interfere with the household and domestic arra gements and affairs of negroes, nor to destroy their gardens and patches—to allow them which is all very proper—but when they will not have "an eye to health," themselves, it is to the interest of their owners to have an eye for them.—*Southern Cultivator.*

7. SOUTHERN NEGRO LIFE.

In this age of canting abolitionism and pseudo philanthropy, we have thought the following sketch from the pen of W. Cullen Bryant, editor of the New York Evening Post, worthy of preservation. The pictures, as far as they go, are painted by him true to life, and are only what we have all witnessed a thousand times over. Apropos too, this subject of southern negro poetry and song is a curious one and deserving of study, constituting as it does the literature, and indeed, the very ingenious literature, of that people. Several years ago, Judge Meek, of Alabama, contributed to one of the southern magazines several interesting papers upon the subject, interspersed with not a few specimens. Some day, at our leisure, we shall hunt them up.

TOBACCO FACTORY AT RICHMOND.

"I went afterward to a tobacco factory, the sight of which amused me, though the narcotic fume made me cough. In one room a black man was taking apart the small bundles of leaves of which a hogshead of tobacco is composed, and carefully separating leaf from leaf; others were assorting the leaves according to the quality, and others again were arranging the leaves in layers and sprinkling each layer with the extract of liquorice. In another room about eighty negroes, boys they are called, from the age of twelve years up to man-

hood, who receive the leaves thus prepared, rolled them into long even rolls, and then cut them into plugs of about four inches in length, which were afterwards passed through a press, and thus became ready for market. As we entered the room we heard a murmur of psalmody running through the assembly, which now and then swelled into a strain of very tolerable music.

'Verse sweetens toil—'

says the stanza which Dr. Johnson was so fond of quoting, and really it is so good that I will transcribe the whole of it:

'Verse sweetens toil, however rude the sound—
All at her work the village maiden sings,
Nor, while she turns the giddy wheel around,
Resolves the sad vicissitudes of things.'

"Verse, it seems, can sweeten the toil of slaves in a tobacco factory.

"'We encourage their singing as much as we can,' said the brother of the proprietor, himself a diligent masticator of the weed, who attended us, and politely explained to us the process of making plug tobacco; 'we encourage it as much as we can, for the boys work better while singing. Sometimes they will sing all day long with great spirit; at other times you will not hear a single note. They must sing wholly of their own accord, it is of no use to bid them to do it.'

"'What is remarkable,' he continued, 'their tunes are all psalm tunes, and the words are from hymn books; their taste is exclusively for sacred music; they will sing nothing else. Almost all these persons are church members; we have not a dozen about the factory who are not so. Most of them are of the Baptist persuasion; a few are Methodists.'"

A CORN SHUCKING.

"But you must hear of the corn shucking. The one at which I was present, was given on purpose that I might witness the humours of the Carolina negroes. A huge fire of *light wood* was made near the corn-house. Light wood is the wood of the long-leaved pine, and is so called, not because it is light, for it is almost the heaviest wood in the world, but because it gives more light than other fuel. In clearing land, the pines are girdled and suffered to stand; the outer portion of the wood decays and falls off, the inner part, which is saturated with turpentine, remains upright for years, and constitutes the planter's provision of fuel. When a supply is wanted, one of these dead trunks is felled by the ax. The abundance of light wood is one of the boasts of South Carolina. Wherever you are, if you happen to be chilly, you may have a fire extempore; a bit of light wood and a coal give you a bright blaze and a strong heat in an instant. The negroes make fires of it in the fields where they work; and, when the mornings are wet and chilly, in the pens where they are milking the cows. At a plantation where I passed a frosty night, I saw fires in a small inclosure, and was told by the lady of the house that she had ordered them to be made to warm the cattle.

"The light wood fire was made, and the negroes dropped in from the neighboring plantations, singing as they came. The driver of the plantation, a colored man, brought out baskets of corn in the husk, and piled it in a heap; and the negroes began to strip the husks from the ears, singing with great glee as they worked, keeping time to the music, and now and then throwing in a joke and an extravagant burst of laughter. The songs were generally of a comic character; but one of them was set to a singularly wild and plaintive air, which some of our musicians would do well to reduce to notation. These are the words:

'Johnny come down de hollow.
Oh, hollow!
Johnny come down de hollow.
Oh, hollow!
De nigger-trader got he.
Oh, hollow!
De speculator bought me.
Oh, hollow!
I'm sold for silver dollars.
Oh, hollow!
Boys, go catch the poney.
Oh, hollow!
Bring him round de corner.
Oh, hollow!
I'm going away to Georgia.
Oh, hollow!
Boys, good-bye for ever.
Oh, hollow!'

"The song of 'Jenny gone Away,' was also given, and another, called the monkey-song, probably of African origin, in which the principal singer personated a monkey, with all sorts of odd gesticulations, and the other negroes bore part in the chorus, 'Dan, dan, who is the dandy?' One of he songs, commonly sung on these occasions, represents the various animals of the woods as belonging to some profession or trade for example:

'De cooter is de boatman—'

The cooter is the terrapin, and a very expert boatman he is.

'De cooter is de boatman.
John, John Crow.
De red-bird de soger.
John, John Crow.
De mocking bird de lawyer.
John, John Crow.
De alligator, sawyer.
John, John Crow.'

"The alligator's back is furnished with a toothed ridge, like the edge of a saw, which explains the last line.

"When the work of the evening was over, the negroes adjourned to a spacious kitchen. One of them took his place as musician, whistling and beating time with two sticks upon the floor. Several of the men came forward and executed various dances, capering, prancing and drumming with heel and toe upon the floor with astonishing agility and perseverance, though all of them had performed their daily tasks and had worked all the evening, and some had walked from four to seven miles to attend the corn shucking. From the dances a transition was made to a mock military parade, a sort of burlesque of our militia trainings, in which the words of command and the evolutions were extremely ludicrous. It became necessary for the commander to make a speech, and confessing his incapacity for public speaking, he called upon a huge black man named Toby, to address the company in his stead Toby, a man of powerful frame, six feet high, his face ornamented with a beard of fashionable cut, had hitherto stood leaning against the wall, looking upon the frolic with an air of superiority. He consented, came forward, and demanded a bit of paper to hold in his hand, and harrangued the soldiery. It was evident that Toby had listened to stump speeches in his day. He spoke of 'de majority of Sous Carolina,' 'de interests of de State.' 'de honor of ole Barnwell district,' and these phrases he connected by various expletives and sounds, of which we could make nothing. At length he began to falter, when the captain, with admirable presence of mind, came to his relief, and interrupted and closed the harrangue with an hurrah from the company. Toby was allowed by all the spectators, black and white, to have made an excellent speech."

DEPARTMENT OF MANUFACTURES.

1. CHARLESTON COTTON MILLS.

At a late meeting of the stockholders the following officers were elected for 1850: James Chapman President. .Directors: J. H. Taylor, J. Welsman, J. Provost, Henry Cobia.

We passed an hour very pleasantly on Saturday afternoon in an examination of the flourishing establishment in the upper part of the city, known as the steam cotton mill. We have watched the progress of this enterprise with great interest, because we regard it somewhat in the light of an experiment. An experiment not merely to determine whether cotton could be profitably converted into cloth in our city, but an experiment upon the industrial habits of our people. It has often been asserted of southern industry, that it was not persistent or enduring; that our climate was enervating, and productive of lassitude, indolence and feebleness; and that if cotton mills were started they could not be carried on by southern operatives, and that therefore they would have to be imported from the North. Again, it was urged that the business was one unsuited to our tastes and pursuits, and could not successfully be introduced

among us. For these and other reasons we have watched the progress of this enterprise with usual interest; and as those who have had the management of it have struggled on against every kind of difficulty, with undiminished ardor and confidence, we have given them our warmest sympathies; and now, when success has measurably crowned their efforts, we heartily congratulate them and the community, which has been, and will be, benefited by their enterprise and perseverance.

We were conducted over the mill by the intelligent and active superintendent, Gilbert Reed, Esq, who we learn has been instrumental in getting the establishment into its present admirable working condition, and who has brought the whole interior of this busy hive into system and order. While the mills at the North are running short time, or stopping work altogether, we are pleased to learn that the Charleston mill is driving every loom to its utmost capacity, and that its product per loom is now equal to the best mills in the country.

The goods manufactured at this mill are of very superior quality, having, during the last twelve months, been awarded three first class premiums; one from the Agricultural Society of South Carolina at the fair at Chester; one from the fair of the Franklin Institute at Philadelphia, and one from the fair of the South Carolina Institute held in Charleston.

This mill is one among many others which that eminent engineer, Gen. Chas. T. James, has erected within the last few years in the South and West. We learn with much satisfaction that his highly liberal offer to subscribe for half the stock of a $300,000 cotton mill, will insure at an early day the erection of a factory in our city on an enlarged scale, and which will compare favorably in style, finish and product, with any ever built in this country or Great Britian. The remarkably practical genius of Gen. James, his wide experience in all that concerns the cotton manufacture, and his careful study of all the questions connected with its successful introduction into the Southern States, give great value and interest to the conviction he has expressed and so strongly backed, in favor of the adaptation of Charleston for the prosecution of this great department of industry on an extensive scale. The extent to which he desires to identify himself with our manufactures is most gratifying proof of his perfect faith in their success, and may be considered as settling the question whether their profitable establishment is within our power.—*Charleston Mercury.*

2. COTTON FACTORIES IN THE WEST.

The following interesting statistics are on the authority of the Cincinnati Price Current:

We shall now notice the several cotton factories in the West, as far as we have information; and we believe, that, in making our inquiries, which we did by writing to the several parties, few were omitted; and as the facts presented were furnished chiefly by the proprietors of the mills, they may be relied upon as being very nearly correct.

In Cincinnati, Covington and Newport, there are five factories, viz: Franklin mill, of Harkness, Fosdick & Strader; Pierce, Gould & Co.; J. C. Giesendorf; Covington cotton factory, and Newport cotton factory.

The Franklin factory has 10,000 spindles, 220 looms, manufactures 42,000 yards of brown sheeting weekly, consumes 1,800 bales of cotton per year, and employs daily 250 hands; steam power.

Gould, Pierce & Co., 2,500 spindles, and 32 looms, produces 300,000 yards of sheeting per annum, and 150,000 pounds cotton yarn; consumes 600 to 700 bales of cotton yearly, and employs daily 60 hands; steam and water power.

O'Shaughnessy & Co., 3,000 spindles, manufactures 13,500 yards 4-4 brown sheetings and 200 lbs. cotton yarns per week; consumes 900 bales cotton per year; employs daily 75 hands; steam power.

Covington cotton factory, R. Buchanan, agent, 2,600 spindles, makes yarn only; consumes 950 bales of cotton per annum; employs about 80 hands; steam power.

J. C. Giesendorf, 100 spindles, produces 5,000 lbs. yarns, wick and batting, per week; consumes 500 bales of cotton yearly, and employs 30 hands; water and steam power.

The above spindles are all in operation, and in addition to these, Messrs. O'Shaughnessy & Co. intend to increase their number from 3,000 to 6,000; and Mr.

Giesendorf, who has just removed his machinery into a new building, purposes adding to the number of spindles, from time to time, until it is increased to 6 or 7,000.

The Cooper cotton factory, Dayton, 2,300 spindles, produces yarns; consumes 900 bales of cotton annually, and employs about 80 hands; water power.

Castalia manufacturing company, Castalia, Ohio, 1,700 spindles, 48 looms, 1,200 to 1,400 yards heavy brown sheetings made per day, consumes 312 bales of cotton annually; employs 35 to 40 hands.

Springfield cotton mill Springfield, Ohio, 500 spindles, produces 90,000 lbs. yarns, carpet warp and batting, and consumes 200 bales of cotton annually; employs about 20 hands.

Maysville, Ky, cotton mill, A. M. January & Co., runs 3,700 spindles, produces cotton yarns only, consumes 1,000 to 1,200 bales of cotton per annum, employs 85 to 100 hands; steam power.

Brookville, Ind., J. Woods, runs 1,200 spindles, produces 600 lbs. yarns per week employs 30 hands; water power.

Steubenville, Ohio, G. E. & J. W. Warner, runs 4,700 spindles, produces 9,000 yards of brown sheetings and 15,000 lbs. yarn per week, employs 180 to 200 hands.

Zanesville cotton mill, Zanesville, Ohio, 1,744 spindles; produces 232,500 lbs. yarns, warps and batting per annum, consumes 250,000 lbs. cotton; steam power.

Miamisburg, Ohio, M. Cassady & Co., runs 500 spindles, produces 2,150 lbs. yarns, batting, &c., per week, and consumes 200 bales of cotton per year; employs 20 hands; water power.

Wellsville, Ohio, runs 2,000 spindles, produces yarns; consumes 750 bales of cotton per year.

Pittsburg Eagle factory, 6,000 spindles, produces yarns only; consumes 1,900 bales of cotton per annum.

Alleghany factory, 1,500 spindles, produces yarns, and consumes 600 bales of cotton per annum.

Penn mills 6,300 spindles, produces sheetings; consumes 1,500 bales of cotton per annum.

Star mills, 4,000 spindles, produces sheetings; consumes 1,200 bales of cotton per annum.

Wheeling manufacturing company, 2,000 spindles, produces sheetings; consumes 700 bales of cotton per annum.

Brighton, Pa., 1,000 spindles, produces sheetings, and consumes 400 bales of cotton per year.

Cannelton, Ind. (now receiving the machinery, and will be in operation about the 1st of May), capacity 10,800 spindles, estimated production 2,000,000 yards of No. 14 brown sheetings per annum.

There are, in addition to the above, mills at Bon Harbor, Lexington and Paris, Ky., Columbus and Dayton, Ohio, from which we have no statement, but from what we have been able to learn, their combined capacity is about 12,000 spindles.

It is seen by the above that we have in operation in this Western valley *eighty-nine thousand* spindles; and the additions to be made to factories in this city and vicinity, will, in another year, swell the number to near *one hundred thousand*.*

The consumption of cotton is near 22,000 bales per annum, which, at present prices, would cost about $1,300,000.* There is, in addition, considerable cotton consumed in the manufacture of batting, which we have not included in our statement.

The products of the mills noticed are all disposed of in the West. Those in and near this city find here a ready market for their cloth and yarns; and the demand, particularly for sheetings, is such that stocks do not accumulate. Considerable quantities of Pittsburg sheetings are also disposed of here; and still there is a market for Eastern sheetings, which are brought from Boston and sold as cheap as our own manufactures. This, however, does not pay, as Boston and Cincinnati prices are generally about the same.

Since the advance in cotton, manufacturers have been turning out their pro-

* Subsequent statements of factories, not included in our first report, further increase the number of spindles to 100,220, and the consumption of cotton to 27,300 bales.

ducts at a loss, as the improvement in the price of the raw material is equal to about three cents per yard, while there has been only one cent per yard advance in the value of sheetings. This, of course, will not continue, as cotton must soon recede to its ordinary level; and the probability is, that, next season, the raw material will be lower than before the recent advance commenced, as the present high prices will stimulate growers to increase the productions to the utmost extent.

In our notice we may have omitted some mill in the section of country included in our statement; and if so, we shall feel obliged if some of our friends will advise us of the fact.

3. DOMESTIC MANUFACTURES.

We have before us samples of towels and table linen, manufactured in the Swedish colony, settled at Bishop Hill, Henry county, Illinois. They are really beautiful and valuable articles, just such as, we believe, every housekeeper would desire to possess. The ladies should inspect them, to appreciate their worth. They are made from flax grown in the colony; the thread is fine, even and well wove. Before us are samples of coarse and fine articles, and each is ornamented by a colored linen border of delicate and beautiful work.

In this society, they manufacture fine and coarse linens for all the purposes to which it is applied—for table covers, sheets, &c. We need not remind the housekeeper how much more durable and pleasant the domestic linen is for many purposes, than the imported article. At the same place, this industrious and thriving society are manufacturing a variety of articles, such as carpets, sacking, &c. The cholera, last year, carried off a number of the males almost before they had located themselves, and left a preponderance of widows, who employ themselves in needlework and ornamenting fabrics made for market.—*Mo. Republican.*

4. MINERAL RESOURCES OF ALABAMA.

We extracted, in our last, from the able railroad report of Mr. Troost, its internal improvement statistics, and now add to these extracts others upon the minerals of Alabama.

The carboniferous and silurian beds in Alabama, are exceedingly rich in their useful rocks and metals.

There are four extensive coal fields in Alabama, in striking distance of your railroad. They may be designated as follows: The "Tuscaloosa coal field," which is the greatest in area, lies in the valleys of the Warrior and its tributaries. The "Cahawba coal field," the southern boundary of which is at Centerville and Montevallo, occupies the valley of the Cahawba and its tributaries. The "Coosa coal field" is on the west side of the Coosa river, in the vicinity of Broken Arrow creek—and the fourth coal field is in DeKalb and Marshall counties, between the Tennessee and the Coosa rivers. The coal strata on the Warrior and its tributaries, ten of which have been discovered, are from ten to forty-eight inches thick, and are slightly inclined toward the valley of the river; those on the Cahawba, are from two to eight feet thick and are highly inclined, while those on Broken Arrow creek and in DeKalb and Marshall counties, are said to be from four to ten feet thick.

The coal, all of which is bituminous, of the three first-mentioned fields, has proved to be of an excellent quality, having been tested in steamships, gas works, founderies, factories, &c., and from the examinations which have been made there can be no doubt of its abundance.

Each and all of these coal fields are convenient and accessible to your railroad, particularly those on the Cahawba river and Broken Arrow creek, and in DeKalb and Marshall counties. The coal measures of the Cahawba will be in from 60 to 75 miles; of the Broken Arrow of from 120 to 130 miles; and of DeKalb and Marshall counties of from 170 to 195 miles of Selma by your railroad, with branch lines of from 5 to 15 miles long. The Warrior beds may be reached by a branch of 30 to 40 miles long, making their total distance to Selma from 80 to 90 miles.

In close proximity to the coal measures are inexhaustible and extensive beds of iron ore of the finest quality. In fact the counties of Bibb, Shelby Talladega, Benton, Cherokee, St. Clair, Jefferson and Tuscaloosa, abound in deposits of

iron ore, not excelled in richness and extent. The ore has been tested and yields an excellent quality of iron. Notwithstanding the difficulties experienced for the want of suitable means of transportation to market [the cost of transportation to a navigable river being from $9 to $12 per ton], the ore is manufactured into iron in several localities with profit.

Another highly important material, which abounds in localities convenient to your railroad, throughout the carboniferous and silurian rocks, is the limestone. Some of the limestone of these beds furnish marble of excellent quality, and of beautifully variegated colors. Several varieties of blue and gray marble occur in Shelby county; in Talladega county a jet black marble; in Cherokee a buff-colored marble; and in Benton county a dove-colored marble has been found. These varieties of marble take a very fine polish, dress well, and will become very useful for building and ornamental purposes. A large portion of this limestone when burned, yields quick lime, equal in strength and whiteness to the Thomaston lime.

Large beds of gypsum have likewise been found. This article, so useful in agriculture, will also swell the freight. There are other productions of these formations deserving notice, such as hydraulic limestone, mill stones, whetstones, flag stones, lead and manganese.

In the metamorphic rocks in Talladega and Coosa counties, we find a beautiful and highly valuable white marble, and granite well adapted for building. The marble quarries of Dr. Gantt, situated in the southern part of Talladega county, convenient to the projected route of your road, are particularly worthy of being mentioned on account of the pure white saccharine marble which they yield in masses of great size.

A large quantity of iron is already produced in this portion of Alabama. The great cost of transportation at the present time, is a serious check upon this business.

The coal fields of Alabama must supply the Gulf of Mexico, which is soon to become the seat of a commerce vastly greater than what it now enjoys. Our recent acquisitions on the Gulf and on the Pacific will bring into that great inland sea the commerce of every part of the world.

5. IRON MANUFACTURE IN EAST MISSISSIPPI.

"East Mississippi Iron.—We were recently shown, by our old friend Judge Killen, specimens of fine looking *iron*, extracted from ore found in the vicinity of his residence, in Neshoba county. The Judge assured us that it was of the best quality, and that the ore existed in quantities which would be almost inexhaustible."—*Eastern Clarion.*

We had intended, at an earlier day, offering some remarks upon the above, from our excellent cotemporary, who has done, and is doing, much to develop the rich resources of the East.

The great difficulty presented to the manufacturing of iron, in Mississippi, is the absence of mineral coal. The first process is to reduce the iron ore into a metallic state, by means of a furnace, which is charged from the top with certain proportions of iron ore, coke and limestone. The limestone is used as a flux to the ore, and to promote its fusion. For fifteen tons of roasted iron ore, there are required twenty-two and a half tons of coke, and about six tons of limestone, which must be all intimately mixed together.

Formerly charcoal was used in the place of coke, but, since the abundance of mineral coal, and its greater cheapness, it is generally dispensed with. Where anthracite can be purchased at three dollars per ton, charcoal at five cents per bushel, and wood at two dollars per cord, to manufacture iron with coke, made from anthracite coal, would cost just half as much as charcoal or wood. We could not, then, compete with the North; and any attempt to avail ourselves of the rich deposits of iron ore in our State, would result in a failure to the capitalists who might embark in the enterprise.

Here are the obstacles to be met. If our friends in Neshoba can overcome them, iron may be made as well in Mississippi as in any other State in the Union. They can only be overcome by reducing the price of wood coal; for, so far as our observation goes, there is no mineral coal in Neshoba which can be profitably coked for the manufacture of iron. Wood, at fifty cents per cord, would make coal at two cents per bushel. If this cost is attained, iron may be manufactured at $30 per ton, and, as it cannot be shipped here from the North,

or Europe, at less than about $45 dollars, we should make a profit of $15 per ton. Ten dollars profit per ton would make a productive investment. Say that 1,500 tons were made per annum, this would yield $15,000, at a profit of $15 per ton, the net average would be $22,500. These figures are evidently under the mark, and we are satisfied that, if the fuel can be obtained at the rates we have named, the capitalist who invests his money in the Ne-hoba iron will make a fortune. We speak from what we learn of the quality of the iron. The ore is represented to us as being very rich.

6. AMERICAN MANUFACTURES.

There has lately taken place at Paris, in one of the rooms of the Exchange, an exposition of American cotton fabrics; and an examination of these tissues may give an idea of the competition with which our French products are threatened by the manufacturers of the Union. One of our principal merchants, M. Lefort Gonsselin, after examining these specimens, has declared that American industry has made immense progress, and that that country bids fair to supplant, in the various markets of the world, France, England, and all the European States, in the sale of cotton fabrics. Nevertheless, if the Americans, having the advantage of possessing the raw article, can afford to sell cheaper than other nations, they are still an immense distance behind the French, as respects good taste, beauty of patterns, the shade and durability of dyes. They will succeed, perhaps, in driving us from the market, for the sale of ordinary articles, for which we have, already, such formidable competitions in the English. But it is the French manufacturers who will continue to supply whatever is intended for the consumption of the easy classes. In 1849, American fabrics consumed 517,000 bags; that is to say, 127,000 bags more than the French manufacturers used during the same year. In the United States the cotton manufacture is concentrated in six States—Maine, New Hampshire, Vermont, Massachusetts, Rhode Island and Connecticut. These States count 729 establishments, in active operation, containing 60,546 looms, and 1,313,629 spindles. The hours of labor vary from eleven hours twenty-four minutes the minimum, to twelve hours forty-five minutes the maximum. These establishments are organized in the most perfect manner. Regularity, order and comfort, of which we have no conception in France, prevail in them. The working rooms are almost like convents. Most particular care is taken to remove the slightest idea of insubordination and immorality. Instruction and health are provided for with incessant watchfulness, and every individual who neglects his duty, or becomes addicted to intemperance, is rigorously and promptly excluded. From this results a double advantage. The persons exployed become rapidly rich, and the employers find themselves indemnified for the high prices they pay for labor, by the steadiness and intelligence of that labor.—*From the Paris Presse.*

7. THE GOLD PEN.

There has appeared an article, of some length, in the New York Tribune, headed *The Gold Pen, its History and Manufacture*, which we find to be curious and interesting, and of which (not being able to find room for the whole of it in our paper) we must be satisfied with laying before our readers a synopsis, which will put them in possession of the most material facts belonging to that branch of our national manufactures—the gold pen.

Mr. John Isaac Hawkins, a citizen of the United States, though long a resident of different European countries, chiefly of England, claims to be the inventor of what is called the gold pen, which, however, is rather a misnomer, it will be seen—the important part and feature of it, the point or nib, not being of gold. It was thought long ago, by Mr. Hawkins, that a pen might be manufactured of some lasting material, so as to be almost indestructible; that is, that it could be used without being worn out, or impaired, for an indefinite period a life time or longer. To discover this material, and to make it available, was the desideratum, and he dedicated nearly thirty years of his life to this object, trying, in the mean time, a great many substances, which were subjected to a great many experiments. The diamond being the hardest known substance, was first tried; but it could not be made to answer, the difficulty being to fasten, or solder it to the gold, so as to make it keep its place permanently. This could not be done,

and there were other objections to it, too. The ruby was then tried, as being the next hardest jewel. A nib could be made of this, but it was not without objections, and was not considered to be hard enough. "Dr. Wallaston," says the Tribune, "had sent to a ruby pen manufacturer, in London, sundry specimens of rhodium, and the native alloy of iridium and osmium, minerals found in combination with platinum, with a request that a pen might be formed from each. Accordingly a few were made, but from the rhodium alone, the iridium being returned to Dr. W. by the manufacturer, with the remark that it was too hard to be worked into figure."

Here now was a starting point for Mr. Hawkins, from which to reach that point so desiderated by him, an indestructible nib, in the pursuit of which he had expended much time, capital and labor. He commenced making experiments on iridium, and satisfied himself that, as regarded hardness, it was just the thing he wanted. It was found to be much harder than ruby, for, being exposed to the action of diamond powder, rotating in a lathe at the rate of five thousand feet per minute, it "was slightly abraded in five minutes," and a ruby, submitted to the same test, was worn away to the same extent in one-third of the time. The next thing to be done, and the most difficult, was to form the nib of this material, and to fix it permanently to the point of the gold pen, which Mr. Hawkins, after much experiment and labor, succeeded in doing. This was about the year 1834, and "thus begins (says the Tribune) the actual history of the gold pen as such."

Iridium is the third heaviest metal, or mineral, so far known, we believe, being the next heaviest to gold, which is next to platinum. It is not malleable, and is worked with very considerable difficulty. It is soluble in muriatic acid, and takes its name from the variety of colors it assumes when undergoing the process of solution—iris being the Greek word for rainbow hence iridium. It is found in Siberia and South America, not in great quantities, however, and is costly, the price varying from thirty to seventy-five dollars the ounce, and it has been sold as high as one hundred. In preparing it for pen points the waste is very great, not being less than seven-eighths, as it comes into the market. As yet, no means have been found of making the refuse, in any way, available, and, as it is not malleable nor fusible, but by the application of intense heat, as of the voltaic battery, it is questionable if this will ever be done.

The Tribune enumerates eighteen processes and manipulations, as belonging to the manufacture of the so-called gold pen, the first of which is the melting of the gold, the last the proving of the pen, when finished, by writing with it. The sixth process is the soldering of the nib to the gold part of the pen, which is done by the application of a "minute jet of flame," which supplies an intense heat.

It is stated that there are now, in the United States, about twenty establishments, more or less extensive, for the manufacture of gold pens. In the State of New York there are not less than a dozen, five or six of them being in the city, and in active operation. Some manufacturers melt gold three times a week. In one establishment they use about one thousand dollars per week. "Victoria sovereigns are generally used in preference to all other qualities of gold;" why, the Tribune does not say, nor do we, not knowing. Fine gold jewelry is used, too, and yet the metal for the pen is reduced by alloys of silver and copper to twelve, fourteen, or sixteen carats, which are but so many parts out of twenty-four—the number representing pure gold.

There are two factories, making but one establishment, one in New York, the other in Boston, that turn out one hundred and four thousand gold pens annually between them. It is supposed that about two hundred ounces of iridium are consumed, annually, for the pens manufactured in this country, though not more than thirty, probably, are actually used in the shape of pen points. Of course the point must be extremely minute; and yet, Mr. Hawkins says, "with fair usage, it is a pen for life." Let us be moderate, and suppose for a few years. That even is achieving much, as all will know, who have had experience, as regards the continual making, mending, splitting and spoiling, of the ancient, venerable, and still ever-to-be-held-in-respectful-remembrance, "gray goose quill."

When gold pens were first introduced into London they sold at £1 ($4 80) each, without a holder. In New York the regular price is $2 50, with silver holders, though they may be had, sometimes, at auction for much less. Mr.

Hawkins says the American manufacturers are ahead of the English, as regards ingenuity, which is evident from their inventing, "labor-saving tools and ready methods of working; while the sluggish and let-well-alone feeling of the English workmen, in my employ, formed a clog to the introduction of new tools and methods of working into my manufactory, even when plainly indicated by experience."

This, we have no doubt, is all true, and we think it quite likely that American pen manufacturers can purchase British gold, make it into pens, take them to London and undersell the London manufacturer, supposing them to be introduced free of import duty; which would not be the case, however, for English free trade principles have not yet got so far as to include gold pens.

DEPARTMENT OF INTERNAL IMPROVEMENTS.

1. ADVANTAGES OF PLANKROADS OVER RAILROADS.

1. Plankroads are more easily and cheaply constructed than railroads.

2. They are more easily kept in repair, and yield a larger and more certain return to the stockholders.

3. Produce can be carried over them at least twenty-five per cent. *cheaper* than on railroads.

4. They are particularly adapted to the southern States, because of the abundance of timber here, and the character of the power used.

5. They accommodate a larger number of people, because they can be carried almost to every man's door, while railroads cannot.

6. They tend to sustain a local population, and build up a home market in every neighborhood which they penetrate.

To these I may add that plankroads are better adapted to an agricultural country, because they can be constructed and kept in repair by the planters themselves; and, because the planters can *own* them and manage them so as to make the transient travel pay the expense of carrying their own cotton to market, and also return a hand-some interest besides.

I know, Messrs. Editors, that many of your country readers particularly, look upon every man who advocates the construction of plankroads as a brainless visionary. They contend

1. That the timber will decay so soon in this climate, that the road will be rendered worthless in the few years at most.

2. That the roads will be so narrow as to be perfectly useless for all practical purposes, especially where we have negro drivers.

3. That the planters will not travel upon them in consequence of the *tolls* charged; but give preference to the common roads.

4. That the country is not sufficiently densely populated to furnish either trade or travel enough to sustain them.

I will answer these objections in order.

1. It will take no more timber to build a plankroad than to lay the superstructure of a railroad, and it will last at least one-third longer upon the former than upon the latter. The objection in regard to the decay of timber, therefore, is much stronger against the railroad than against plankroads. The weight is so immense, that to render the former safe for heavily laden cars, timbers have often to be thrown away before they are half decayed. This would not be the case with plankroads. In the northern States the planks used are of hemlock—a soft, sappy wood—and yet they last some ten or twelve years. It is but fair to conclude that yellow pine will last as long at the South as the hemlock will at the North. If this be conceded, the question is settled, because, even in the least densely settled sections of New York these roads are paying from 25 to 40 per cent. upon the cost of their construction, after laying up a reserved fund sufficient to rebuild them every ten years.

2. If eight feet be found to be too narrow for these roads at the South, it will be an easy matter, in consequence of the abundance of timber and the levelness

of the country, to increase the width to twelve, or even sixteen feet, and still to restrict their cost within the sum paid for their construction at the North. Eight feet at the North, where the population is much more dense, is found to be quite ample. The road is so well graded, so well drained, and kept in such thorough order, that wagons can turn out at any point with perfect convenience.

3. That planters will not pay the *tolls* to enjoy the benefits of these roads, no sane man can believe. Let us suppose a road constructed from Macon to Talbotton, say sixty-five miles in length. It now requires a six-horse team nearly four days to haul eight bales of cotton from Talbotton to Macon. At $5 per day, the cost of delivering these eight bales would be $20. By a plankroad the same team would deliver twenty bales in two days, or at a cost of $10. In one case the hauling costs $2 50 per bale; in the other only fifty cents per bale. It is plain that the planter or wagoner could afford to pay $1 per bale toll, and then save $1 per bale in addition to the saving in wear and tear of wagons and horses. Nothing is plainer than that men pursue their interest, and planters are just as quick to discover their interest as any other class of men. A road to Talbotton would concentrate at that point 20,000 bales of cotton, and a branch from it to the Waymanville factory would concentrate there 12,000 to 15,000 bales more. Can any man doubt that the planters would not gladly pay the tolls and use the road in preference to the common roads of the country? I think not.

4. The idea that the country is not densely enough populated to sustain such a road is equally incorrect. The roads themselves will soon supply the necessary density of population. This has been pre-eminently the case with railroads and canals. The increased value of property along the Erie canal, was more than sufficient to pay for its construction, and this increase was occasioned by the demand brought about by the influx of population.

2. PLANKROADS.

The following, taken from a recent report of O. G. Gates, Secretary of the Kentucky Board of Improvements, contains valuable and interesting information to those interested in road improvements:

1. The system of plankroads which originated in Russia, has since been adopted in Canada, and in many of our northern States entirely superceded the McAdam and Telford rock or gravel roads. The great success and value of the plankroad consists in the cheapness, in ease of draft, in speed, and in comfort to passengers.

2. The approved mode of construction thereof, is as follows: For a single track the planks (of pine, hemlock, oak, red elm, black walnut or sweet gum) should be eight feet long, and from three to four inches thick; they should be laid across the road at right-angles to its line. These planks are to rest on two longitudinal sills or sleepers, each four inches square, bedded in the earth to their full thickness. The earth should be fully kept up to the planks at every point, in order to prevent confined air resting in any vacant space beneath the planks—no pin or spike is needed to confine the plank to the sleepers, their weight being sufficient to keep them firm. There should be placed on the upper surface, a coating of sand an inch thick. There should be provided for a single track, turn-out places—and to effect this, an earthern road must be banked up ten or twelve feet wide on one side, and two or three on the other; each embankment should be made flush with the ends of the plank, and thence sloping outward so as to carry off the water, as perfect drainage is the great secret in the construction of any kind of road. The plank should be laid even, with part thereof projecting two or three inches beyond the general line of the road, in order to prevent ruts made by wheels at the junction of the plank and each turn out. And if the bed on which the planks are to be laid is a new one, it would be better to be traveled one season before they are laid down. One track, with the supplementary earth road thus formed, will be sufficient for all ordinary travel. And, if the tonnage transported on the road be chiefly in one direction, the track should be laid on that side of the road which will enable the loaded teams to keep it, and thereby force the unloaded ones to do all the turning out.

3. To make a double track, all that is needed, will be to make two tracks each eight feet wide, or one sixteen feet wide. The former is preferred. For

the sixteen feet track, three or five longitudinal sills are required, each to be four by six inches, and laid edgewise and embedded in trenches six inches deep. These timbers should be from fifteen to twenty feet long. Great advantage is obtained in the construction of the double track with long plank by giving the road bed a slight convexity of two or three inches in the center, and springing the plank down to the outside sills, and attaching them thereto by half inch spikes or nails three inches long.

4. The duration of plankroads is from eight to twelve years; this matter, however, depends entirely upon decay from rot, and not by the surface wear of the plank. The sand which is spread upon the track when finished, protects the wood from the shoe soles of the horses (which cause most of the wear), and soon penetrates the grain of the plank, until, with the woody fibers and the deposits on the road, a tough elastic covering is formed, whereby the plank is saved from the further wear. Experience teaches that one-half the wear and tear of seven years occurs in the first year. Therefore, it is a matter of great importance on these roads to have small tollage, in order to invite such an amount of travel as will promote their wearing out instead of rotting.

5. The cost of the plankroad greatly depends on its locality. But it will be found the following estimate will approximate to an average valuation, to wit:

For one mile of road with a single track (made with plank eight feet wide and three inches thick), will require 126,720 feet board measure of plank, and of sills 4 by 4, 14,080, making in all of lumber 140,800 feet, and costing say five dollars per thousand, would equal the sum of seven hundred and four dollars. The laying and grading will cost from 30 cents to a dollar per rod, or from ninety-six dollars to three hundred and twenty dollars per mile. The earth work, sluices, bridges and contingencies, admit of no average estimate. Therefore, without them, and one hundred dollars per mile for engineering superintendence, and one hundred dollars for gate houses, we have the total cost per mile from one thousand to one thousand two hundred and twenty-four dollars.

DEPARTMENT OF COMMERCE.

1. THE WABASH VALLEY—ITS OUTLETS AND INLETS.

No sane man, that we have heard, disputes the fact that the Wabash valley is one of the most fertile and inexhaustible agricultural districts in the United States. This has always been its general reputation with special verifications whenever an observing and intelligent stranger has visited that region. And no one can ever have been engaged in business at New Orleans, or as a trader between that city and the shipping points on the Ohio river, without hearing of *the Waba h glut*—an outpouring of western produce from that rich valley, with the early spring freshets, which made it necessary for persons engaged in the purchase and sale of the various articles embraced, to "stand from under" the load that the hoosiers were heaping upon their shoulders.

But of late years, the inhabitants of the Wabash valley have shown a strong inclination to go extensively into *manufacturing* operations—for that term is applied, in commercial parlance, to the putting up of pork and the kegging of lard—and now the pork prices of Porkopolis itself are bearded in their very dens, at New Orleans, by the hoosiers, who have added to the usual articles heretofore making up the celebrated "Wabash glut," barrel and bulk pork, lard, flour, &c.

But even this does not seem to satisfy our friends of the Wabash valley. Among our advertisements to-day, may be found a notice of "*Water Power to Let*," by the Wabash Navigation Company at Vincennes. This power amounts to a propelling force sufficient for 400 run of 4½ feet stones, and may be applied on either side of the river. Vincennes is a point at which grain can be very conveniently delivered, and no one can doubt, that out of the mouth of the Wabash will hereafter go heavy and constant shipments of flour and meal.

The works erected at Vincennes, by the Wabash Navigation Company, are one of the most important improvements yet made on any of the rivers of the West. Before the erection of the dam and lock at the rapids, the Wabash was navigable by only a very small class of boats, and for only a few months each year. Since the completion of that improvement, boats of good size have been able to pass the rapids, *every month in the year*, and a direct and regular trade has been successfully opened with New Orleans, Cincinnati, Pittsburg and other important points. With reference to this improvement, an Indiana correspondent communicated a number of very interesting facts some weeks ago, for which we are under obligations to him. His communication was inadvertently lost sight of soon after its reception, but is not the less interesting now than it would have been if published then. He says:

"The Wabash Navigation Company was chartered by Indiana and Illinois in the winter of 1846 and 1847; preparations for the work were made in the fall of 1847, and it was intended that it should be completed in the fall of 1848. The lock was completed, and the dam was nearly finished, when all work was stopped by the flood, and a part of the dam was washed away; in the fall of 1849 the work was resumed, and the dam was completed about the first day of November last. The lock is the largest in the world—being sufficient to pass a boat 50 feet in width and 230 feet in length; a little longer and considerably wider than the Louisville lock. The stock of the Company is mostly owned at Vincennes. In consequence of the partial destruction of the dam in 1849, at certain stages of the water, steamboats and flatboats could and did safely pass through the dam. But the dam as it was did increase the water on the rapids; and hence at certain other states of the water the lock was used; and hence, too, there was an increased steamboat navigation on the river in 1849. *Steamboats passed the lock at the rapids of the Wabash in each month of the year* 1849. The following statement is taken from the reports of the collector of tolls, on file with John Ross, Esq., secretary of the company. The steamboat passages through the lock in each month of 1849 were as follows: January, 8; February, 11; March, 35; April, 35; May, 26; June, 4; July, 2; August, 4; September, 2; October, 4; November, 3; December, 36—total 152 passages, or 76 steamboat trips up and down, proved by the tolls paid. How many passed through the breach in the dam is not known, but probably as many more. The following is a continuation of the above statement to the last report. January, 1850, 51; February to the 22d, 45; total 96 passages. And the following is a statement of the whole business for the present season: November, 3; December, 36; January, 51; February to the 22d, 45; total 135 passages. The writer has himself seen, lately, the following boats in the Wabash with full cargoes loaded for or at New Orleans: Tribune, Globe, Dove, North Carolina and Warrior. On the evening of the 20th February, there were three boats at the Vincennes landing; one from New Orleans, one from Cincinnati, and one from Lafayette; at the stage of water at that time, but for the dam, there would not have been more than three feet six inches on the rapids. It is well known here, that Vincennes packed pork, shipped by steamboat to New Orleans, was on sale at Boston on the last of February—and from the reports above mentioned, it appears that toll has been paid this season on 4,115,131 lbs. of bulk pork, and on 36,647 barrels of pork: less than half the quantity packed on the river."

A report made some time since the statement of our correspondent came into our possession, shows the business of the Wabash improvement for the period of five months—commencing on the first of December last, and ending on the first of May instant. The total number of steamboats that passed the lock within this period, was 245; the total number of flatboats, 140. The number of passengers moving up and down during this time, is stated at 2,650.

Among the articles of freight passed through the lock during the period of five months above specified, were 50,735 barrels of pork, 7,666,578 lbs. bulk pork and bacon, 1,994,645 lbs. lard, 1,483 live hogs, 129 cattle, 1,974 dozen poultry, 325,794 bushels of corn, 1,000 bushels wheat, 55,092 bushels oats, 1,484 bushels rye, 82 bushels barley, 18,613 barrels salt, 6,278 sacks salt, 1,290 barrels whisky, 3,065 barrels molasses, 7,339 barrels flour, 161 barrels apples, 2,852 bushels potatoes, 319 barrels lime, 93½ tons of hay, 145,338 feet lumber, 20,000 staves, 21,185 hoop poles, 8,574,081 lbs. merchandise, groceries, &c.

The descent of the Wabash at Vincennes, is about 9 feet within a distance of

three miles. The height of the dam raised is 13 feet, which gives a supply of 4½ feet water in the channel over the rapids when the river is at its lowest stage. We wish to call to this fact the particular attention of the "well enough but tardy" friends of a railroad communication between Cincinnati and the Wabash valley. By the excellent improvement at Vincennes, boats 50 feet wide, 230 feet long, and drawing 4½ feet water, can navigate the Wabash at all seasons of the year when there is no obstruction by ice.

This being so, it is not difficult to see, that unless the trade of that rich and fast populating country shall soon get a set in this direction over an iron track, it will get a set by water to the Ohio river, and thence to New Orleans and Pittsburg, which all the railroads that can be built afterward will find it very difficult to interfere with.

As it is, a large portion of the products of the Wabash will hereafter find their way to a market in steamboats by the natural outlet. Another large portion of them will find their way East by the outlet of the Wabash and Erie canal. If Cincinnati is ambitious to obtain and hold any considerable part of them, and also to supply the central section of the Wabash valley with groceries, dry goods and small manufactures, she must soon move in the matter of an iron outlet, or her efforts will all be too late.

2. INTERESTING COMMERCIAL STATISTICS.

The States of Central and South America are destined to play a conspicuous part in the annals of trade hereafter, and everything that tends to throw light upon their political and commercial condition, is not only sought after with avidity, but is read by all classes with particular interest. The last steamer from England brought us many glowing newspaper speculations, with regard to these "sparsely populated colonies and independencies," and not exaggerated accounts of their value to European markets, should the American Senate take a proper view of the subject, and ratify the Nicaragua treaty. That convention having been confirmed, will naturally open a new chapter in American maritime affairs, and the English journals are not wrong in ascribing as much importance to these insolated States, as they are given credit for. Annexed will be found the value of the exports from this country and Great Britain to South America, and a statement of the population of the several districts according to Humboldt's calculation:

AMOUNT OF TRADE WITH

	Great Britain.	*United States.*	*Population.*
Patagonia,	$ 2,000	$ 1,000	
Chili,	4,477,543	1,722,457	1,250,000
Bolivia,	6,000	15,000	1,500,000
Peru,	2,500,000	93,195	1,500,000
Ecuador,	250,000	320,000	600,000
New Grenada,	}	244,460 }	1,750,000
Venezuela,	756,000 }	431,421 }	1,000,000
The Guianas,	3,000,000	821,489	200,000
Brazil,	23,000,000	2,838,380	6,000,000
Cisplatine Republic,	3,865,302	134,638	400,000
Argentine Republic,	2,000,000	595,518	1,200,000
	$39,856,905	$7,218,558	15,400,000

Add to above, central America, ... $50,150 Great Britain; $112,480 United States.

Great Britain, it will be seen, supplies manufactures, &c., to the amount of $40,000,000, while the whole of our exports are computed, by official returns for 1849, at less than $8,000,000. Now, it is no less remarkable, that of this $40,000,000, thirty millions are paid to our transatlantic rival for the growths and products of this country, being for fabrics from our own cotton, which were sent to British looms, and then returned for barter and exchange, past our ports, to those of South America. I draw attention to this fact, because it is one not generally known; and hence occurs the question, whether it is not a singular policy that permits this advantage to a rival, when the same benefits might result to us directly, by manufacturing a portion of our cotton, and sending them thither for barter, instead of to the looms of Great Britain.

Appended will also be found the value of the exports to the Bermudas and the West Indies, including Cuba, which may be mentioned in this connection.

These statistics show, if nothing else, the vast field still open to competition in our own waters.

EXPORTS TO

	By Great Britain.	*By United States.*
British West Indies,	$20,640,000	$3,935,834
Hayti,	1,600,000	532,577
Cuba and other West Indies,	7,700,000	6,335,590
Total,	$29,940,000	$10,804,001
Cuba alone,	$2,300,000	$4,641,145

I stated in a late communication that the population of Cuba, white and black, amounted to less than 2,000,000. It may be of interest to specify more particularly the trade of the island. According to the custom-house returns of 1849, the transactions were as follows. I use round figures:

EXPORTS.

Sugar,	lbs.,	280,000,000	Cigars,	lbs.,	20,000,000
Coffee,	"	76,000,000	Rum,	pipes,	4,000
Wax,	"	1 250,000	Molasses,	"	98,000
Leaf Tobacco,	"	2,500,000	Estimated value,		$14,000,000

IMPORTS.

I will not specify the imports nor the countries from which obtained.

Suffice that their estimated value for the same year, was	$15 000,000
Total value of exports and imports,	$29,000,000

A pretty fair commercial transaction for a white population of five or six hundred thousand.

It only remains to add the commerce of Mexico, and we will have the relative value of the exports of this country and Great Britain to the ports on this continent, and those of the West Indies.

The exports to Mexico on British account, are stated in value at	$3,750,000
Value of exports to the United States,	$1,047,999

We, therefore, recapitulate as follows:

EXPORTS TO

	From United States.	*From Great Britain.*
South America,	$ 7,218,558	$39,856,905
Central America,	112,480	50,156
West Indies, &c.,	10,804,001	29 940,000
Mexico,	1,047,999	3,750,000
Of each country,	$19,183,038	$73.507,061
		19,183,038
Aggregate value,		$92,780,099

Respectfully, HENRICO.

3. PITTSBURG STEAMBOAT BUILDING.

The Pittsburg Gazette of Friday last, contains the following statement of the steamboats and keelboats built at that port from the 1st of January to 31st of May, 1850, as entered at the Custom House:

	Names.	*Captains.*	*Tonnage.*
January 4	—Saranak No. 2,	Wm. McIntyre,	295 55-95
" 5	—Hungarian,	R. E. Neal,	279 25-95
Feb'ry. 16	—Buckeye State,	S. J. Reno,	393 67-95
" 27	—Kentucky,	S. D. Maclane,	139 27-95
" 23	—Cincinnati,	W. J. Kountz,	831 5-95
" 28	—Clara Fisher,	Wm. H. Gordon,	108 6-95
March 2	—Keystone State,	C. Stone,	337 33-95
" 11	—Alleghany Belle,	J. Hanna,	97 48-95
" 19	—Milton,	J. B. Davis,	158 22-95
" 19	—Navigator,	Wm. Dean,	154 53-95
" 26	—Union,	C. C. Speller,	95 94-95
April 20	—Washington,	W. W. Martin,	164 42-95
" 26	—Youghiogheny,	Jas. Marsh,	65 34-95

	Names.	*Captains.*	*Tonnage.*
May	7—*M. Hoffman,	J. M. Woodward,	493 4-95
"	18—Federal Arch,	G. W. Bowman,	195 83-95
"	18—Robt. Rogers,	E. Butcher,	178 76-95
"	29—Accommodation,		84 18-95
"	29—Chief Engineer,	O. Lenis,	67 88-95
"	29—Birmingham,		77 63-95
"	31—Fleetwood,	Wm. Conley,	212 70-95

Five flats and one keelboat were built and entered during the above period.

4. EXCHANGE—FALL OF GOLD.

There is probably no question which, being purely financial, is less understood by financial men than the simple one of exchange, with which they daily have to do, but the nature of which they do not bear in mind. Thus, we are daily quoting exchange on England at, say, 9 per cent. premium, when the fact is, that the price is $\frac{2}{3}$ per cent. *discount.* If you ask an exchange dealer why it is, he tells you that is the nominal *par;* but what constitutes the nominal or the real par he has no *time* to explain. On the occasion of a late debate before the finance committee of the House of Representatives, a member of that committee gravely asked a representative, a banker of high financial reputation, from a neighboring State, why it was that money is worth so much here that we have to pay 9 per cent. premium? The questioned replied that the premium was "nominal," being calculated upon a "nominal" par—but being unable to explain what nominal meant in that relation, the committee-man wisely came to the conclusion that financial sagacity was attempting to bamboozle him. As gold will now, probably, become a staple export from this country, and its changing value will call speedily for a readjustment of the "standard," we have thought proper to enter into some examination of the subject here, as matter that must speedily affect the importing interest.

Most countries, it is known, use the precious metals as currency, but the United States alone make both metals and coins, of all nations, a legal tender. In Europe, almost all the nations have silver alone as a legal currency. England, on the other hand, has gold alone, with silver to the amount of 40 shillings only. The United States make both metals a tender. Now, it is obvious that, to ascertain what a *par* of exchange is, it is requisite to know what the standard coin of one country is worth in another at the same time. But the value of both metals is always changing in relation to each other. When the mines of America were discovered, gold was worth ten of silver. The new supplies of the latter metal diminished its relative value, until, at the close of the last century, one ounce of gold was worth fifteen of silver. Now, in coining, all countries vary the legal relative value of silver. In the United States it was 15 to 1; in England, 14½ to one; in Hamburg, 15 to 1; in Paris 15½ to 1; in Madrid, 16 to 1. Now, it will be observed, that the state of the markets for exchange affects the value of these metals relatively: a demand for gold will raise its relative value, and for silver likewise. During a part of the eighteenth century, Spanish pillar dollars circulated in these then colonies, and in London they were worth 4*s.* 6*d.* each—that is to say, $4 44.4 were a pound sterling. Since that time, silver has fallen in value until it came to be worth 4*s.* 10*d.* per ounce, or 4*s.* 2*d.* each dollar—making the sovereign $4 87½; but this changing value was not expressed in dollars and cents per lb., but in per cent.—and this erroneous expression has perpetuated the error.

Since the commencement of the present century, both the standards of England and the United States have undergone a change. In 1816 a complete new coinage took place in England, by which the value of coin was advanced 6½ per cent.—that is to say, before that time one pound troy of standard gold, 22 carats, was coined into 44½ guineas; after that, into 46 29.40 sovereigns. From a pound troy of silver, 62 shillings had been coined; afterward 66 shillings. This latter was higher than the market price of silver, and designed to

* The steamer Martin Hoffman, the 493 tons vessel entered in the above list, is a propeller. She was built and fitted out here, expressly for the Atlantic Ocean, to run as a packet, between New York and the West Indies. She was a most superb steamer, and will be an ornament to the trade. Another vessel of the same stamp, will, in a short time, be fitted out at Pittsburg, belonging to the same company, and designed for the same trade.

keep those coins in the country. Of course this change affected the relative value to United States coins, and the gold *par* between the countries has changed three times. Thus, under the law of 1790, the eagle of $10 contained 247.5 grains pure gold, or 270 grains standard, and the English guinea at that time 118.55 grains pure gold, or 128 grains standard, and was worth, as compared to the eagle, $4 76 In 1792, a law of Congress ordered the custom house to value the English coins at 100 cents for every 27 grains actual weight, which was valuing the guinea at $4 74. When the English coinage was changed, in 1816, the sovereign contained 113 11 gains, and the eagle remaining the same, the par was $4 56 for gold—consequently, very little gold came here, and nearly all the coinage was of silver. It also happened that the relative value of gold to silver from 15 to 1 had declined to 16 to 1, which aided the change in the British coins in sending the gold from this country. A change became necessary in the United States standard, and, in 1834, the gold bill did for our currency, what had been done for that of England by act of Parliament, 1816—that is to say, the pure gold in the eagle was reduced from 247.5 to 232 grains, at which rate the par of gold between here and England was raised to $4 87.5. These changes are seen in the following table:

UNITED STATES AND BRITISH COINS.

	EAGLE.		SOVEREIGN.		
	Weight.	*Pure gold.*	*Weight.*	*Pure gold.*	*Relative par.*
1792,.....	grs. 270	grs. 247.5	grs. 128	grs. 118.65	$4 76
1816,.....	" 270	" 247.5	" 123	" 113.11	4 56
1834,.....	" 258	" 232.0	" 123	" 113.11	4 87
1837,.....	" 258	" 232.2	" 123	" 113.11	4 86

In the United States, the silver remaining the same, the taking of 15 grains of gold out of the $10 gold piece, raised the relative value of silver to 16 to 1, and this seems to have been about the true gauge hitherto. Now, it will be observed that London is the great market for silver whence Europe supplies herself. It is, there, not money but merchandise. When there is a demand for it on the continent, it rises in price, and of course, like any other merchandise, it is sent to the place where it sells best. As an instance, in 1829, dollars sold in London at 4*s.* 9*d.* per ounce: $1000 weigh 866 ounces. At the same time dollars were par in New York. The French revolution of 1830 caused a demand, and dollars rose in London to 4*s.* 11½*d.* per ounce, and to 2½ per cent. premium in New York—just as cotton or any other article rises here, when there is a demand there. Now, suppose a merchant owes in London £1,000, and the currency here being dollars, he is to remit them in payment. Dollars are not money in London, and he looks at the last quotation and finds that new dollars sell at 4*s.* 10*d.* per ounce: as $1,000 weigh 866 ounces, they are then worth 4*s.* 2*d.* or 50*d.* each; consequently, to pay £1,000 requires $4,800, and to send them there, according to the pro forma of an actual shipment under our money head for last week, will cost $200 more—say $5,000. Instead of doing this, he buys a bill of exchange, for which the account will run thus:

A. to B.	*Dr.*
For bill due on London, £1,000,.....	$4,444 44
Advance, 9 per cent.,.....	399 99
	4,844 33
Brokerage, ¼ per cent.,.....	12 11
	$4,856 44

Now, this bill, at 9 per cent. premium, has cost him $142 56 less than the expense of sending dollars, or *less* than *par*, notwithstanding the absurd manner of making out the bill. Again, if, say a stock bond for $1,000 is sold in London at what is called par—$4 44 per pound—the payment is £225, for which $1,078 dollars may be bought in the market, which is $4 84 per pound. If the 225 sovereigns are brought home, they are worth $4 87½ here. The movement of the metals never takes place either way, however, until the variation of the exchange will cover the cost. Thus, sovereigns cannot be sent from London to the United States when exchange is over 5½ per cent. premium, and cannot go back when it is less than 10¼—being a range of nearly 5 per cent.; and American gold cannot go under 11⅛. It is now probable that, from the supply of gold, instead of silver continuing to fall it will rise in value, and, perhaps, get back to the old

par of $4 44. Many of the countries of Europe, as Holland, for instance, are abandoning gold as a standard in this view; and it may become expedient for the United States to abandon silver for large amounts and adhere only to gold.

5. DECISIONS OF THE NEW ORLEANS CHAMBER OF COMMERCE.

[New Orleans Chamber of Commerce, before a special committee: Present, Chas. Briggs 2d Vice President. Messrs. M. Greenwood, Wm. Mure, W. S. Pickett, G. A. Holt. Prehn, Clegg & Co. *vs.* Wright, Williams & Co.]

This is a claim for £90 7*s.* 3*d.* sterling, the alleged amount of difference in value between 10 bales—part of a lot of 96 bales—of cotton, sold as "ordinary" by defendants to plaintiffs, but which the latter assert turned out to be false packed and deceptive, and the sale of which resulted in a loss of the sum now claimed.

It appears by the document submitted to the committee, that the whole purchase, of which the 10 bales in question formed a part, consisted of 243 bales, which were classed by the broker, Mr. Schmidt, as follows: 23 bales fully middling, 68 middling, 73 good ordinary, 69 ordinary, 6 stained and 4 low ordinary.

The plaintiffs assert that the spinners in England, for whom the cotton was purchased, on opening the 69 bales of ordinary, found the 10 bales complained of fraudulently packed, so as purposely to deceive the buyer—a very small quantity of good cotton being on the top and bottom, while the bulk of the bale was gin dirt and dust, not worth the carriage.

The plaintiffs' claim is supported by a certificate of the foreman of the spinners, for whom the cotton was purchased, who declares these 10 bales to be false packed and worth only two pence half-penny per pound, while the remainder of the lot was worth seven pence per pound; also, by a certificate to the same effect, by a person named Richard Wight, who is described by the plaintiffs as a respectable merchant in the trade. This latter certificate is not sworn to, and there is no consular certificate to any of the papers. The only testimony offered on either side, is that of Mr. Schmidt, the plaintiffs' broker, who bought the cotton, and the samples drawn by him at the time of the purchase, together with the samples, of the 10 bales in dispute, returned from England. Mr. Schmidt testifies that, in classing cotton purchased by him, he never puts *mixed cotton* in any *regular class*, but either altogether rejects it, or classes it by itself, dependent on the terms of the contract. He further testifies, that the difference of value between the lowest and the best cotton in each separate sample exhibited, of these 10 bales, does not exceed three or four cents per lb. in this market.

The committee have carefully examined the samples, and the testimony presented to them, and are of opinion, that they are altogether insufficient to establish the identity of the cotton. The plaintiffs' own witness, Mr. Schmidt, distinctly states that he would never have put "mixed cotton," such as is contained in these 10 bales, among ordinary cotton, nor in any other regular class, and yet in no other way could they possibly have got into the lot of 69 bales, among which they are said to have been found, but by his act. There are two qualities in each of the samples of these 10 bales—one which if they were false packed, would, of course, have been placed outside fully middling quality—the other, below low ordinary, and by no method of drawing samples known to the trade here, could these bales, thus constructed, have found their way into the ordinary class of this purchase. The whole declaration of the foreman of the spinners is at variance with the testimony of the plaintiffs' broker here, and with the evidence of the samples themselves; he says, that "each bale was merely coated with the description it ought to contain," whereas, if they were coated at all, for the purpose of deceiving, it could *not* have been with the description it ought to contain, for there was none such in the bales, but with a class either better or worse, for, as before stated, these 10 bales, if correctly represented by the samples, contained cotton either entirely above or entirely below the class "ordinary," to which they are said to have belonged. That part of the declaration of this witness, in which he asserts there is a difference of 4½*d.*, or nearly nine cents per pound, between the 10 bales and the other cotton in the shipment, is equally at variance with the evidence of Mr. Schmidt (who testifies that the difference does not exceed 3 to 4 cents per pound) and the appearance of the samples exhibited to the committee—and, under these circumstances, the committee unanimously award,

That the claim of the plaintiffs be dismissed, and that they pay the costs of this arbitration.

CHAS. BRIGGS, MOSES GREENWOOD,
G. ARNOLD HOLT, W. S. PICKETT.
WM. MURE,

[Before the committee of arbitration: Present, C. W. Phillips, E. H. Pomroy, J. M. Savage, R. B. Sumner and P. H. Skipwith. New Orleans, June 4, 1850. N. R. Harback *vs.* Kennett & Dix.]

The plaintiff, in this case, claims of the defendants $216 37, being, as he alleges, loss sustained by him on a purchase, from defendants, of eighty barrels of lard, in consequence "of bungling and imperfect construction of said barrels," whereby there was a greater actual tare than that allowed (18 per cent.), and a leakage, as proved by the weight when sold, of 1,725 pounds.

It appears, in evidence, that the plaintiff received the lard from defendants, May 22, 1849—shipped it to Boston and sold it, September 7, 1849—statement of loss, weight, etc., was made to him, by Wm. Thwing & Co., January 9, 1850—that the empty barrels weighed 5,375 pounds, averaging about 67 pounds each—that the difference between the actual tare, and the tare agreed upon (18 per cent.) was 1,681 pounds—and the loss, in the weight of the lard, as proved by the weight in Boston, was 1,725 pounds.

It also appeared in evidence, that this lard was put up in what were called, in the trade, country packages—that such barrels are usually clumsily and unskillfully made, frequently weighing here 62 lbs. each, and that lard when put up in such packages, does not sell for as much as when put up in pork-house barrels, as the better kind of packages is called; many parties altogether refusing to buy lard put up in country barrels, and others, when buying in such barrels, taking it at a price equal to ½c. per pound less than they would give for the same article in pork-house barrels—that, tare allowed at that time varied from 16 to 18 per cent.—that the per cent. of tare agreed upon was conventional and was not guaranteed, nor even expected to be equal to the actual tare—that the weight of a lard barrel, in Liverpool, would, necessarily, be much greater than it was here, on account of its being more thoroughly saturated with lard—that the leakage of lard barrels, when shipped from this port in the summer season, is, necessarily, very great, even in the most perfect packages—that the difference, in appearance, between country barrels and pork-house barrels is so great, that no person, at all conversant in the trade, can mistake the one for the other—that the condition and kind of packages, as well as the per centage of tare allowed, were quite as much elements of the price agreed upon, as the quality of the lard.

The committee can see no shadow of claim for reclamation on account of leakage—if the plaintiff bought and received barrels in bad order, he, of course, paid a corresponding price; but there is no proof that the barrels were in bad order when received—neither do the committee think, that he has any claim for extra tare. He must have been aware, when he bought the lard, that itw as put up in country barrels, of "bungling construction" varying very much in the actual tare, and, of consequence, a corresponding price. The committee, therefore, unanimously award,

That the claim of the plaintiff be dismissed, he paying the costs of the arbitration. P. H. SKIPWITH, CHAS. W. PHILLIPS, EDW. H. POMEROY.

6. THE COFFEE TRADE WITH BRAZIL.

The aggregate exports of coffee from Rio Janeiro, for 1848, were 806,900 bags. Exports from January 1, to October 31, 1849, 492,430 bags—from October 31, to November 26, 1849, 81,167 bags; vessels loading, 45,000 bags; to leave in December, about 100,000 bags—equal in all to 718,597: which show a deficit, for 1849, of 88,303 bags.

The crop of the present year is estimated to be short about 400,000 bags, but the growing crop is expected to be immense, and will come to market early in 1850. The shipments to New Orleans, New York, Boston, Baltimore and Philadelphia, amount to 134,007 bags.

In this connection, we find the number of vessels which have sailed from Rio, for United States ports, with coffee, from 1st January to 26th November, 1849, make a grand total of 245,000 bags. Valued at $17 per bag (say per average), $4,165,000.—*New York Express.*

LITERARY DEPARTMENT.

1. THE SCIOTE LOVERS.

A FRAGMENT: BY P. H. H., OF CHARLESTON.

THE following little poem is founded on the massacre at *Scio*, the most beautiful and fertile island of the Grecian archipelago. The revolting details of this most horrible of the many tragedies that characterized the struggle of the Greeks for independence, are too well known to need a recapitulation here.

'T was the hour when holy and earnest Thought,
With Devotion's incense-breathings fraught,
Moveth the heart that is weighed with care
To pour forth its mingled griefs in prayer:
'T was the hour when the wild and hardened soul
Grows soft 'neath the sweet and mild control
Of feelings that rise with a sudden thrill,
Bidding Passion's dark tide be still—
When Memory doth fondly and sadly roam
O'er the scenes and pleasures of childhood's home,
And hopes that have gladdened life's weary way
Come back with a warmer and brighter ray.

Not a sound was heard but the beach-bird's cry,
Flitting the stately palm groves by,
And the murmuring voice of the evening breeze,
That sighed o'er the waves of the twilight seas,
As the sun-beams were casting a farewell smile
On the rock-girt coast of *Scio's* isle.

Where the banian reared its leaves on high,
With a graceful curve to the cloudless sky,
And the citron and olive a cooling shade
Beneath their umbrageous boughs had made,
There reclined, entranced 'mid the peaceful scene,
Two beings, as pure of heart, I ween,
As ever have loved in life's young day,
Ere the dews of its morning have passed away.
O! they loved with the first warm love of youth,
Its fervent trust and its earnest truth—
And they deemed that the world was an Eden wild,
Where forever the spirit of Gladness smiled,
Shedding odors sweet from her tireless wing,
Like the balmy breath of the early spring;
For their hearts, that were strangers to wo and strife,
Knew nought of this barren and restless life.

The moon rose broad from the circling sea,
Sublime in its hushed tranquility,
And her rays were reflected so calm and bright,
They looked like a path to the Land of Light.

* * * * * *
* * * * * *

OSCAR bent down o'er the maiden fair,
And whispered a word in her listening ear—
And the sudden and crimson blush confest
The ardent love of an innocent breast.
He gazed on her glowing and tender face,
On the eye's mild beam and her form of grace,
And he thought he would cherish his bride till death,
And bless *her* name with his latest breath.

Hark! heard you the sound that passed by so near,
On the rustling wings of the evening air?
'T was not the fisher's light song of glee,
In its strains of careless harmony—
'T was not the gay laugh at a festive board—
'T was the war-shout deep of a reckless horde,
That had come, like fiends from their darksome cell,
To stain this pure isle with the work of hell.
OSCAR turned with a sudden start,
But stilled not the throb of his loding heart,
For an anxious burden lay heavy there,
And arose in his bosom a thought of fear.

List! list again! 't was a dreadful cry!
So wild in its thilling agony!
Young lovers, methinks it is time to fly—
Speed on, speed on! if ye would not die.

Fleet as a roe on the mountain side,
The youth leaped light to his trembling bride—
His arms round her yielding form he wound,
And sped for life o'er the broken ground.
Let him reach but yon hut by the billowy wave,
And his precious burden he yet may save,
For the skiff of the fisherman rides the tide—
Hasten on! hasten on! why do ye bide?

Oh, God! they have compassed the outward path,
Those foemen dark, with their eyes of wrath,
And high o'er the brow of the vine-clad hill,
The cry of *the Moslem* rose clear and shrill.

There are foes behind, there are foes before—
In the tangled wood, on the sounding shore:
"Nearer and clearer" the dread notes swell,
Their echoes ring out like a funeral knell,
And with gleaming blades, 'neath the moonlight gray,
The serried squadrons rush on their way.

A change has passed over the youth's pale brow:
In its high resolve, so dauntless now,
One look to his trembling love is given,
And the next raised up to the cloudless heaven,
As if he would summon a seraph thence
By that look's unspeakable eloquence.
"Leila!" he said, in a low, sweet tone
(And his lip breathed gently upon her own)—
"Leila! earth's latest hope has flown:
But spirits like ours, thus severed here,
Will embrace once more in a brighter sphere.
They come! they come! *one* parting kiss—
Death for *thy* sake, beloved, is bliss."

A moment more, and a Moslem blade
Above the unshrinking speaker played;
But before the weapon of death could fall,
Or the startled Turk upon Allah call,
OSCAR, with iron power, had grasped
The warrior's arm—as his hand unclasped,
He seized on the sabre that swung below
And dealt on his foeman so fierce a blow,
That the murderer, giving nor sign nor sound,
Sunk heavily down on the moistened ground.

O! 'twas a sight that the gallant soul
Would have stirred, beyond reason's cold control:
That youth with the red blade flaming high,
And his broad breast heaving mightily
With emotions that swelled like a wild sea there,
The outpourings strong of the last despair;
And the maiden, though timid, and wan and weak,
With the rose-tint fled from her pallid cheek,
Was sustained by the fervor of deathless love—
And, lifting her heart to *its* source above,
A bright ray of hope on its darkness shone,
From the glory that circles God's radiant throne.

A hundred curses of merciless ire
Arose from Moslem breasts of fire—
A hundred reckless and powerful arms
Uplifted their terrible scimetars,
Reeking and red with the crimson gore
Of innocent hearts they had pierced before,
To revenge the fall of their treacherous chief—
'Twas a conflict fierce, but passing brief.

Brave OSCAR fronted the turbaned throng,
And sternly his shout of defiance rung;
The well-tried sabre, keen and bright,
Waved round his head in a line of light,
And "the foremost foeman" learned, that night,
How fearful the strength of a freeman's hand
That strikes for love and his native land.

Alone, amid the fierce crowd that pressed
Round that unflinching warrior's crest,
Still raised, and proudly raised on high,
Scorning to yield, though doomed to die,
OSCAR, in desperate mood, fought on,
Till his limbs waxed faint and his strength was gone—
Then slowly sunk on the faithful breast
Of *one* to life's last hour loved best:
His eyes sought her's in the pangs of death,
And he blessed her name with his latest breath.

* * * * * *

Slowly and sadly the star-beams fade—
And, brooding in sadness, that softened shade,
That stealeth o'er heaven and earth awhile
Ere morn breaks forth with her glorious smile,
Settled dark and still on Scio's isle.

A trusty guard, from the Turkish host,
Were wending their way by the desolate coast,
Where the mangled forms of the murdered dead,
At each step on their dreary path were spread,
And the vulture was hovering overhead.

On a litter of boughs, from the "Greenwood" torn,
A fainting captive is lightly borne
To the silent shores of a secret bay,
Where the Moslem galleys at anchor lay.
Whence cometh this being, so pale and fair?
Hath a child from the wandering bands of air,
Too venturesome far, been lingering here,
Till the fiend-like yell and the carnage sight
Hath o'ercome her innocent nature quite?
Ah! no; 'tis a maiden of mortal birth,
But destined soon to depart from earth;
For around her the somber and viewless wing
Of the angel of death is hovering—
And a voice that mortals may never hear,
Save when the last dread hour draws near,
When life's dream is o'er and life's toil is done,
Thrills on the ear of the dying one.

* * * * * *

A bark is bounding the blue waves o'er:
As the mists ascend from the fading shore,
There has risen the breath of a gentle gale,
Filling the folds of each unfurled sail,
And murmuring soft, with a mournful sound,
O'er the heaving billows that roll around.

A plunge is heard! from that galliot's side
A white robe floats on the azure tide;
Two clasped hands lifted, as if in prayer,
Rose sadly up through the misty air;
A low, faint cry, like the lute's last tone,
Passed by with the struggling water's moan:
Then, slowly the *form* of the maid went down,
While her *spirit* rose with an angel's crown.

2. THE THORNLESS ROSE.

BY A. J. REQUIER.

THE tempest of a thousand dreams
Hath broke, but left behind
A rose which in my household gleams
Thornlessly beautiful, and seems,
Day after day, to wind
Its tender stalk about the breast,
Closer, which it has blest!

The idol of the buried past,
From out that past hath risen,
New-plumed; as breaks a light the vast
Of the benighted heaven!
My God! that I have lived, and she,
At last, thy gift should be.

Green hopes are blowing in my heart—
Its spring, so long delayed,
Unvails a bride; and they depart,
The ruin, rock and shade;
And where the hail-stones crushing fell,
Blushes a holy spell!

A spell of eyes that, in their love,
As daisies thro' the dew
Lift an entrusting look above,
Seem thus to look at you:
A spell of soft-inclosing arms,
Shielding from many harms.

O! tempest of a thousand dreams,
I bless thee; for behind
Thy gloom is left that rose which gleams
Thornlessly beautiful, and seems
Inseparably twined
With all that stirs within this breast,
Now and forever blest!

Marion, S. C., 1850.

3. THE MARSEILLES HYMN.

THE writer of the annexed lines, prefaces them with the remarks which follow:

"I have often heard Americans wish for an English versification of the Marseilles Hymn. I hardly think it possible that one can be given, which will preserve the point, spirit and energy, which mark the original. Indeed, it is impossible, I conceive, to give a *close* translation—there must be some liberty given in the choice of language, provided the *sense* and *meaning* are not departed from. You will perceive that I have availed myself (perhaps too liberally) of this license. I have no confidence in my success. Z."

Near Natchez, Miss.

AN ATTEMPT AT AN ENGLISH VERSION OF THE MARSEILLES HYMN.

Come, children of your country, come!
The day of glory brightly beams;
Oppression sounds her signal drum:
For us, her bloody standard gleams.
Hark! from the line of that array,
The cruel soldier's fierce alarms;
They come, your friends, your sons to slay,
While seeking refuge in your arms.

CHORUS.

Then, citizens, to arms! your front of battle show—
March on! and with their tainted blood, your fields o'erflow!

Behold, now, all these slavish bands
Of traitors, and a treacherous king.
For whom these shackles? On whose hands
Are irons, long prepared, to ring?
Frenchmen, for us! Ah! what abuse!
What passions can our souls restrain,
When they thus dare to threaten us
With ancient servitude again?
Then, citizens, to arms! &c.

What! shall these foreign soldiers claim
To form for us a household code?
Or mercenaries crush the fame
Of our own warriors, brave and good?
Great God! shall we, in rack and chain,
Beneath the yoke, submissive lie,
And these vile despots thus remain
The masters of our destiny?
Then, citizens, to arms! &c.

Tremble! ye tyrants! full of guile,
By every party name abhorred;
Tremble! for parracide so vile
Will surely meet with its reward.
Each soldier pants to join the fray—
If our young heroes bleed and die,
France can call forth a new array,
Prepared your legions to defy!
Then, citizens, to arms! &c.

Frenchmen! upon the generous brave
Deal or withhold your warlike blows:
Yet, those unhappy victims spare,
That you, reluctantly, oppose.
But not those despots—men of blood—
Accomplices in strife—foresworn—
Relentless tigers, lost to good,
Who their own mothers' breasts have torn!
Then, citizens, to arms! &c.

The sacred love of country, wields,
Directs, sustains avenging hands;
Freedom, her sons, forever shields,
And with them in the combat stands.
Sits on our standard—Victory!
She hastens to our battle cry,
And foemen see, ere yet they die,
Our glory shine triumphantly!
Then, citizens, to arms! your front of battle show—
March on! and with their tainted blood, your fields o'erflow!

4. SUMMER RAMBLINGS.

Who has been pent up many months within the walls of a great city, sharing the contentions and struggles of active men, jostling and being jostled in the endless throngs that crowd the highways and the byways, or plunging, at times, into the vortex of pleasure and fashion, can appreciate the relief which a change of scene brings, when the wearied spirit seeks repose from artificial restraints in the boundless fields of nature, or in the novel recreations of travel.

So we felt, on leaving our home in the great metropolis of the West, when the first fiery breathings of summer began their exhausting influences on the physical man, and admonished that the season of life and gaiety and active turmoil was again at end in New Orleans. Wonderful emporium of a valley as wide as Europe and fertile as the Nile, how sleeps thy enterprise now—how deathly still thy quays—how deserted thy Rialto and thy Exchange, where men most did congregate—how blank and desolate every place of public resort and pastime in thy midst!

Well, they are wise, who thus retreat for a time that the heart may bound again, that the spirit be unfettered, that higher and holier inspirations come from the great workings of God—in the mountains, in the forests, by the seashores and the ocean—than ever attend the workings of the crowded city, which man has elaborated in his pride and power.

"I hate to breathe
The breaths and think the thoughts of other men
In close and crowded cities, where the sky
Frowns like an angry father, mournfully;
And O! I love the woods, those natural fanes
Whose very air is holy."

* * * * * *

Of these lake retreats, some belong to the earliest days of the city, while yet the creole, under French or Spanish rule, pursued his quiet way, unjostled or unmolested by the first advances of anglo-American adventure. Many of them are of recent origin; and every year adds to their number and popularity. Here the cool and refreshing breezes of the Gulf fan back the faded colors of the cheek, and the invigorating and luxurious bath nerves again the wasted system.

Yon wide expanse of waters, how tranquilly they sleep, save when ruffled by the evening breezes, by the flapping sails and pendants of the beautiful pleasure boats that dart and swim and throw the spray from point to point, or by the noisy paddle-wheels and hoarse belchings of the loaded steamer. See the gay colors floating and the anxious boatmen preparing for the race, as one by one the fairy craft bound from their moorings and strain every beam and sail in the rival struggle! Now the crowd throngs the shore, and loud huzzaings make the welkin ring again.

They have taken the lines and are off for yonder island, on a piscatory excursion. Here the exciting sport begins, as each favorite variety of the finny tribe is dragged upward from its briny home, to meet death on the sandy shores and minister to the appetites of remorseless and relentless captors.

And now the evening shades have fallen, and the sounds of music and the revels of youth and beauty are heard in the halls of fashion. We shun the pastime and the show, and steal away to the shore again. The mists of night have settled over the boundless waters; and star after star, peeping from the sky, sees itself mirrored in the sleeping basin, and guides the mariner on his way. But now a meteor darted over the heaven. Far away, on high tower, flickers and burns that beacon-light and lantern of the seas. Everything is still, and the holiness of nature alone reigns in the heart now.

* * * * * *

Among the numerous watering places around New Orleans and between the city and Mobile, in sight of which our steamer passes, are:

1. Pass Christian.—This is the most accessible point from New Orleans, being only a few hours distant, and is, perhaps, in the highest state of improvement and fashion. It is a delightful position and of a most inviting temperature, as the results of the thermometer last year will show:

July	1st,	6 A. M., 76°	12 M., 81°	6 P. M., 77°
Aug.	"	6 A. M., 76°	12 M., 85°	6 P. M., 80°
Sept.	"	6 A. M., 71°	12 M., 81°	6 P. M., 75°

We extract from the New Orleans Delta of an early date:

2. Mississippi City.—Next we approach that great invisible town, destined to eclipse our own Crescent City, the only apparent remains of which are the almost endless pier and tottering wharf. But we are told, for we have never trusted our precious bodies on that pier, which the enterprise and genius of the Mississippi speculators erected to receive the vast produce, which was so confidently expected to be landed here for reshipment to Europe—we have never essayed the long journey along that pier, but we understand that, when you have once reached the land, there are many pleasant little houses nestled in the live oaks, where you may pass a few weeks very delightfully.

3. Biloxi.—Biloxi is the largest of any of the sea-side resorts. Its regular population must be five or six hundred, and its visiting population considerably more than double that number. Biloxi has many advantages. The town is right on the sea; there is no long, white beach to traverse before you can reach the sea; and the soil is good, producing vegetables and a fine growth of trees. Here you can always get a fine supply of fish and oysters, and an abundance of fruit and all other vegetables. There are half a dozen excellent houses in Biloxi.

4. Bay of St. Louis.—This is a beautiful place, where the land is high and well timbered, the country around well cultivated, with fine roads and an abundance of all the conveniences and pleasures, both of the sea-side and back-country. It is generally resorted to by families, and such families, too! To our ancient or creole population, this has ever been an attractive and popular resort.

5. Pascagoula.—The place is appropriately called by such a soft and beautiful name. Pascagoula is, perhaps, the most desirable of all the places on the Gulf, with reference to enjoyments. The bathing is better than at any other place, and the fish, oysters and crabs, are more abundant. There is no lack of timber, the live oak and other trees being thickly strewn along the coast, and the situation of the place is very fine. The company at Pascagoula is a pleasant combination, in about equal numbers, of the citizens of Mobile and New Orleans.

* * * * * *

But here, at last, we have reached Mobile. Our sister city, like ourselves, reposes from the spasm of an active winter. Her half million cotton bales, the product of Alabama and contiguous counties of Mississippi, are freighted upon the deep or stored in the warehouses of Europe and the North. Her citizens, relieved for a season, seek recreation and health in every inviting retreat. We are rejoiced to find a spirit of enterprise abroad in Mobile, which must soon work a revolution in her affairs, and arrest the progress of any decline her citizens may have feared. Indeed, a high advancement must be reserved for her in the future. This will come with the progress and completion of the stupendous railroad enterprise she has projected to the Ohio, and which she is pressing forward with an earnestness and enthusiasm no difficulties could surmount. It will come, too, with the establishment of manufactures, for which her people are already ripe. A hearty God-speed to our sister in her onward way.

We take the steamer here and steer toward the Bay of Mobile. We have reached the anchorage, where the larger class of vessels, from the absence of sufficient draught of water higher up, are loaded and unloaded by the aid of lighters. Here we meet the British steamer Tai from Havanna, awaiting her passengers and mail. There are several watering places on the Bay of Mobile, which are becoming, or have already become, the seats of fashion and of pleasure. The locations are beautiful, and nothing is wanted to attract the most fastidious. Yonder we observe Hollywood House and Howard's; and still further off, toward the great ocean, and favored by its breezes and refreshed by its tides, is Point Clear. This is a new establishment, belonging to a company of gentlemen, and has already grown quite popular. The waters for bathing are more salt than at any other of the watering places, more especially the present season, as the crevasses of the Mississippi have inundated the lake. The nights are cool. We spent a week delightfully at the Point, and formed many pleasant acquaintances, whose memory and kindness shall always linger with us. The Alabama Planter says:

Point Clear, however, is not all that is delightful on the eastern shore. There are Howard's and Freeman's, as delightful summer residences as a prince might desire. Buried, as it were, within the woods, they are sacred to contemplation and sentiment. In front, the beautiful bay spreads its vast bosom, and over and through it come such breezes and delicious fish as can nowhere else be found except in our own region. In the rear, also, is hunting as good as the best sportsmen can desire.

For health, moreover, nothing can be more favorable than the whole of this eastern coast. It is superior, by all means, to our interior springs, the virtues of which, we imagine, are more imaginary than real. What is due to change of habit and diet, is usually attributed to the mineral waters at these places. As much good health, and a great deal more comfort, may be secured on the eastern shore. At least, that 's our opinion.

* * * * * *

Having returned to New Orleans from the lakes, we started on the splendid steamer, Alexander Scott, intending to visit for the first time many parts of Mississippi, and afterward Memphis, Huntsville, Nashville, the Mammoth Cave, &c., a tour from which much true delight was anticipated. A severe attack of indisposition prevented in part the accomplishment of the design, and prevents us now from embodying, as we much wish to do, from the abundant notes before us, the particulars of the trip so far as we were permitted to make it. This shall not, however, be neglected, if we can help it, in our next.

At VICKSBURG, we collected notes for a paper upon that city, and the full statistics of the Jackson railroad, now extended to Brandon, and in progress toward the Alabama State line. We acknowledge our great indebtedness to Col. Roach, of this Company, for his many attentions and for the mass of data furnished us, which, with regret, but from necessity, is postponed for our next. To A. H. Arthur, Esq., formerly of the "Vicksburg Whig," a gentleman of wide and liberal enterprise, we also express our deep obligation. He had but just returned with Mr. Coleman, from Selma, Alabama, where, as commissioners, they had ordered the opening of books, &c., for stock in the railroad, on the first Monday in October next. At our request, Mr. Arthur furnished the following notes:

RAILROADS IN MISSISSIPPI.—The Vicksburg and Jackson railroad extends from Vicksburg to Jackson, forty-six miles, and is complete.

The Southern Railroad Company, extends from Jackson, the seat of government of Mississippi, to Montgomery, the seat of government of Alabama.

The State of Mississippi has invested her two per cent. fund, about $300,000, to purchase negroes, iron, cars, and has completed the road from Jackson to Brandon, in the direction of Montgomery—thirteen miles now complete and running in connection with the Vicksburg and Jackson railroad. The State has given the railroad from Jackson to Brandon, with all its cars, depots and slaves, &c., to the Southern Railroad Company, whenever it is organized and completes twenty miles beyond Brandon, toward the Alabama State line. In the meantime, whilst the Southern railroad is being organized, the sixty slaves belonging to the two per cent. are working on the twenty miles beyond Brandon in grading and preparing for the iron, so that all the Southern railroad will have to do after they organize, is to get the iron and lay it down on these twenty miles, to secure the gift of the State—to wit: all the road completed from Jackson eastward, including cars, slaves, horses, wagons, &c. With this start, it will take but little effort to carry it to the Alabama line, near Livingston, Alabama. The only other condition is, that the Company will complete the road from Brandon to the Alabama line in six years.

From Vicksburg we visited Clinton, Raymond, Mississippi Springs, Cooper's Well, and Jackson, the seat of government, receiving many kindnesses and courtesies which shall ever endear to our heart the people of this gallant and flourishing State. From governor Quitman, in addition to other evidences of favor, we received many valuable public documents relating to Mississippi, which will materially aid us hereafter in commenting upon its affairs. We had begun a paper intended to be rather elaborate upon the State, but gladly relinquish the duty to another far abler. We refer to the Hon. J. M. Chilton, of Vicksburg, who kindly, at our request, has undertaken it, and for which task there is no man in Mississippi better qualified.

We spent two or three weeks most delightfully at the Mississippi Springs and Cooper's Well, both growing rapidly into favor and fashion. Here, during the summer months, a large portion of Mississippi congregates, and one may obtain no meagre notion of the social life and manners of the people. There were a few persons also from Louisiana and Alabama; but, we believe, the number will greatly increase as the merits of these resorts are better understood. New Orleans alone will furnish thousands annually. It is with regret, we can make but a few hurried allusions to these watering places, and that we are dependent almost literally upon our note book.

MISSISSIPPI SPRINGS.—How tranquil the heart is amid these shades. Far down from our window the eye sweeps through groves of tall oaks and pines, and, following the gentle undulations of hill and vale, embraces a prospect the most picturesque and attractive. From the bowels of these hills the gelid springs ooze forth their limpid currents, bringing back freshness to the cheeks and making the heart beat with a new and higher life. Here the old man on his crutches comes, "While there is life there is hope"—"not that life is sweet, but death is terrible." Old man, would you find the fountain of perennial youth, and exchange gout and paralysis for the bound and leap of fifty years ago? Thou art here, too, man of thought and business, wearing upon thy features, and in thy staid and heavy gait, the semblances of over-tasked energies, of wasted health and of growing infirmity. Youth, dreaming and hopeful, and with all the enthusiasm of its nature, swells the list, chasing after pleasure, like boy with hat in hand after butterfly. Widows and maidens, ringleted, bright-eyed, dimpled-cheeked and laughing-faced, for conquest and admiration, and the joys which may not now be postponed! The dance, the dance—"on with the dance," each night mingling in its mazes warm youth and hopeful maidens and gay widows—on with the dance, till jocund day peep o'er the hill tops, or the smaller hours of morn invite thoughtless revelers to repose:

"Since life is the cup we all must quaff,
Be love the pearl within it."

But to be serious, the Mississippi Springs are in Hinds county, ten miles from Jackson, six miles from Clinton, four miles from Raymond, and two and a half miles from "Cooper's Well." They are within a few hours reach of Vicksburg by the cars, which leave twice a-day. The establishment has been in existence many years, but lately on an enlarged and improved scale. It has been a favorite resort, attracting annually thousands of visitors, as many as five or six hundred having been entertained at one time. Large families are in the habit of spending their summers at these springs, for the promotion of health. The climate is cool and genial, and the

nights never made hideous by the orgies of musketoes.

Mr. John Fletcher, a gentleman well-known in Mississippi, and who has had much experience in this character of business, has now charge of the premises, and it is doing him small justice to say, that he spreads daily one of the most inviting boards it has been our fortune to meet with any where out of New Orleans. Every thing that the country can afford, crowns the table of this excellent caterer.

There are billiard tables; ten-pin alleys; a bar room stocked with the finest description of wines, brandies and cigars; stables with any number of horses and vehicles; a large and airy ball room, where the "light fantastic" is tripped nightly; an excellent band of music; good roads for driving; airy rooms for sleeping, &c.

The waters are sulphur, and possess great virtues in the cure of dyspepsia, diarrhea, dropsy, general debility, &c. We say sulphur, though chemical analysis shows, we are informed, and sufficiently well marked, iron, soda and magnesia also.

The terms are extremely moderate.

COOPER'S WELL.—This summer seat has been in existence but a short time. The water is highly mineral and medicinal, and many remarkable cures have been performed by it, which are vouched for on the highest authority. We had some of them from the parties themselves. The original proprietor, the Rev. Mr. Cooper, claims to have been directed, by a dream, to this spot and bid to dig down into it. Whether or not, it is certain that the well *has been* dug, and that hundreds and thousands seek its remedial agencies. The buildings, though commodious, are still rude, owing to the fact that the proprietor has gone on without other capital than the annual earnings of the place. Four or five hundred could, however, at a pinch, be accomodated. There are billiard rooms, pin alleys, bars, ball rooms, and such like amusements.*

Appropos of the BALL ROOM—we had intended a page or two on the bright eyes that sparkled there, and the loveliness that is not often surpassed. But as this moment having returned to New Orleans, we are dull—passingly so—and cannot, if we would, "paint a rose or gild a lily," or cull a flower from any source. On referring, however, to our *diary* of nearly ten months back, when the fit was fully on us, a page presents itself, which, as illustrating how it is possible to feel at times, we insert without apology. In these hot days (the middle of August), one must treasure up his "odds and ends," and make them go as far as possible. Thus, we are "pensioners" on the *past*, and not, as Young says, "on the bounty of the hour."

"What shall compare with these nightly exhibitions of beauty, that burst upon us here? Is it that the "Orient Ind," we are sighing by dull locomotive pace to reach, already showers down her gems in sparkling heaps, realizing, at once, every rapt vision of ancient poesy or song? O! the brows of polished whiteness, and the deep, dark, glossy locks, that stream in wilderness profusion—"eyes which speak love to eyes speaking again"—sparkling, dazzling, bewildering, bewitching, reflecting like watch-fires the soul! Lips are here that breathe concentrated perfumes of all flowers in earth or paradise—sylph-like forms which graceful glide in every mazy dance and dizzy whirl, ravishing the senses by poetic motion! The spell is o'er—the irresistible fascination gone for me now, and darkness comes! An image lingers in that darkness of the soul. It is there, palpable as a thing of life and beauty, all radiant in the gathering night. How eloquent those eyes, speaking the innocence and purity of a soul that has not learned guile in the crowded haunts of fashion—so soft, so pensive, so lit by the emanations of a deity: a flower from the rich fields of *nature*, which art has not yet deformed. That voice, innocently joyous and musical, thrills upon the heart, drinking its deep notes, and saddening when the echo of them only lingers. I watched her where beauty blazed—the star gilding its way. She mingled not in the dance and revelry; for a young heart had been consecrated to God, and angels were her watchers. O! fair girl, I may not match thee among the bright throngs of earth—no spirit like thine may glide again upon my path—but dreams will bring thee back, like glimpses of lost heaven to pilgrim man: for the *pleiad*, which is gone from the sky, is not lost forever, but drawn higher and nearer to its throne, to burn brighter and more resplendent there!"

---

*Cooper's Well is situated in Hinds county, Mississippi, thirteen miles west of Jackson, the State capital, and four miles east of Raymond, the county seat. The Raymond railroad, now rebuilding, will probably be done by the first of June next; it intersects the Vicksburg railroad at Bolton's. Distance from Raymond to the well, four miles. At this time, hacks can be had at Bolton's, twelve miles to the well; or Clinton depot, eight miles. Persons leaving Vicksburg can be at the well in four hours.

Extensive arrangements are making for the coming summer. The water is principally chalybeate. The celebrity of this well is not surpassed; and it is recommended by the medical faculty, in cases of chronic diarrhea, gravel, dropsy and general debility—it acts powerfully upon the liver and kidneys, and has the same salutary effect throughout the year. Invalids can be accommodated, at all seasons, with comfortable rooms.

But few places can excel this as a watering place. The picturesque view—the elevated location—romantic hills and lofty pines—in fact, everything indicates health, independent of the medicinal water, which has proved so beneficial.

5. LATE PUBLICATIONS, EDITORIAL NOTES, &c.

LATE PUBLICATIONS.

From HARPER & BROTHERS, through J. B. STEEL, New Orleans:

1. GIBBON'S ROME, EDITED BY MILMAN. This is published uniform with the editions of Hume and Macaulay, from the same house. There will be six volumes, with a complete index of the whole work. The reputation of this history has long since spread throughout the civilized world, and nothing in regard to it can be required from us.

2. HISTORY OF ENGLAND FROM THE ACCESSION OF JAMES II. By Thomas Babbington Macaulay. From the last London edition. We have already noticed this work, which is published in two neat and handsome volumes.

3. DR. JOHNSON: HIS RELIGIOUS LIFE AND HIS DEATH. This is a handsome volume, of four hundred pages; but not having had time to examine it, critically, we furnish its table of contents: Religious Life of Johnson, his Humanity, his Churchmanship, his Superstition, the Close of his Life, his Calmness in Death. The work will hardly displace Boswell.

4. HARPER'S NEW MONTHLY MAGAZINE. No. 2. (Will they send us No. 1, by mail?) This is the cheapest work of the day, and contains a republication of the leading papers in all the foreign reviews, journals, newspapers, etc.

From GEO. P. PUTNAM; J. B. STEEL, New Orleans:

5. THE HUNGARIAN REVOLUTION. Outlines of the prominent circumstances attending the Hungarian struggle for freedom; together with brief historical sketches of the leading statesmen and general who took part in it. By John Pragay, colonel and adjutant general in the Hungarian army under Kossuth.

6. MANUAL OF COMMERCIAL CORRESPONDENCE—English and French. By a merchant.

From the AUTHOR:

7. WAH-TO-YAH AND THE TAOS TRAIL; OR, Prairie Travel and Scalp Dances, &c. By Lewis H. Garrard.

From the AUTHOR:

8. THE ANALOGY OF ANCIENT CRAFT MASONRY TO NATURAL AND REVEALED RELIGION. By Chas. Scott, A. M., Grand Master of the Grand Lodge of Mississippi. This is a large and splendidly finished volume. The author is a resident of Jackson, Miss., and he has treated his subject with great elegance of style, purity and ability. His familiarity with Scripture things is surprising in a layman. As a specimen of the author's style, we take his opening passage: "The enlightened craftsman beholds in Free Masonry a wonderful institution. Founded, as it is, on the truths contained in the Holy Scriptures, its principles constitute a moral science which surpasses every other in the world."

From the AUTHOR:

9. THE DOCTRINE OF THE UNITY OF THE HUMAN RACE, examined on the principles of science. By John Bachman, D. D., Prof. Nat. History in the college of Charleston, S. C.

10. THE UNITY OF THE HUMAN RACES, proved to be the doctrine of Scripture, reason and science; with a review of the present position and theory of Prof. Agassiz. By the Rev. Thos. Symth, D. D., Member of the American Association. New York, G. P. Putnam; New Orleans, J. B. Steel.

The above work presents a mass of valuable matter, in connection with a subject we have already frequently adverted to, and which we intend before long to examine, in full, in our pages. Until then we reserve our remarks.

From LITTLE & BROWN, Boston:

11. PROPOSITIONS CONCERNING PROTECTION AND FREE TRADE. We have not had time to examine it. The author, Willard Phillips, rejects the whole science of political economy as it has hitherto been taught, and regards free trade as a crying and fearful evil. He says, in his preface: "I shall be happy to believe there is little at stake, and that the doctrines of free trade do not tend directly to the distress, decay and political subordination and degradation of this country, and to the too great entanglement of its industry and interests with those of other nations."

From LEE & BLANCHARD, Philadelphia; J. B. STEEL, New Orleans:

12. NOTES FROM NINEVEH, AND TRAVELS IN MESOPOTAMIA, ASSYRIA AND SYRIA. By Rev. J. P. Fletcher. 365 pages. This is a compact volume. The author says: "From the great interest excited respecting Nineveh, I have been induced to collect and to throw into narrative, the notes of two years' residence on its mighty plains, with accounts of excursions into the remotest parts of Assyria. In order to complete the record, I have added some chapters descriptive of the country on the route.

13. GALLERY OF ILLUSTRIOUS AMERICANS: Containing portraits and biographies of twenty-four most eminent citizens of the Republic. Edited by C. Edwards Lester, assisted by an association of literary men. New York: Brady, Davignon & Co. Price $1 per number—imperial folio size—or, for the set $20. The present, No. 6, contains "Col. Fremont." If the publishers will send us, through their agents here, the first five numbers, and those hereafter issued, we promise elaborate notices of them in the Review.

14. PAMPHLETS, PUBLIC DOCUMENTS, ETC. We are indebted to Phillips, Sampson & Co., of Boston, for No. 7 of Carlyle's pamphlets. Subject: "*Hudson's Statue.*" Our friend, Edwin Heriot, of Charleston, forwards his Address before the Cadets of the *Military Academy* of South Carolina. It possesses the chastity and merit of everything which emanates from his pen, and rises often to eloquence without once falling into dullness. It would afford us great pleasure, did space admit, to extract many passages from the pages of our esteemed friend and early companion. We have, also, another of Shakspeare's works, from Phillips, Sampson & Co., of Boston: *King Henry IV.* "*Proceedings of the South Carolina Medical Association,*" a pamphlet from the press of Walker & James, Charleston. *Discourse on the Funeral of John C. Calhoun*, by the Rev. James W. Miles, Charleston. With so sublime a spectacle as must have been presented at the bier of Mr. Calhoun, we should expect eloquence and power—and these are Mr. Miles's attributes. It was an occasion to acknowledge, with Massillon, at the grave of Louis XIV, "God alone is great." We are indebted to the Hon. Wm. Elliott, of South Carolina, for a copy of his late *Agricultural Address*, which is a document so valuable, we will endeavor, hereafter, to give a large part of it to our readers. Hamilton Smith, of Kentucky, sends us a large pamphlet, upon *Cunnelton*, with a great abundance of cotton, coal, iron and manufacturing statistics. We will analyze the pamphlet, when more at leisure. The *Hon. Pierre Soule*, our able senator at Washington, will receive thanks for the Financial and Commercial Reports of government, and for the Debates in the Convention of California. We are also indebted to this gentleman and to the Hon. Mr. Rusk, of Texas, for several of their speeches, in pamphlet. Mr. Rusk's Post office Report we reserve for future analysis.

EDITORIAL NOTES.

1. CONTRIBUTIONS.—We have on hand several valuable contribution which must, unfortunately, lay over until our next. We invite the aid of southern writers, upon all subjects, in our work.

2. REMITTANCES.—Subscribers will please remit us promptly, on the receipt of this number, their dues for the current year and those which are closed, where such indebtedness exists. Remit by mail—to save us great loss by agents, and in time. Remittances will be acknowledged on back of work.

3. BOUND VOLUMES, ETC.—We again solicit orders for our bound volumes, in library style; and will supply them complete, four years, to July, 1850—amount payable in fall or winter, by order on factors. Not many sets remain.

Our prospectus is again inclosed. We would not weary our friends—but make a last appeal for their friendly aid in extending our circulation and ensuring our success. Much gratitude is acknowledged to them for past favors.

The present number is much smaller, and less interesting, than usual, for which the editor pleads continued indisposition during the past month.

Responsible persons are wanted to canvass different sections of the South for the Review.

4. ERRATA.—In our article on Cuba Expedition, in August number, appears several typographical errors; but they are chiefly verbal, and do not affect the sense in any important points. We seldom see our proofs, but have employed one of the best readers in the country, who sometimes, however, mistakes the hieroglyphical sentences of copy. He will improve in deciphering the text.

5. MASON'S EXPRESS.—Subscribers, in New Orleans, will always receive their numbers, at our expense, through the *City Express Post.* We have taken great interest in this enterprise from the beginning, and are truly glad it is doing so well. Merchants and citizens should afford a generous support. Boxes are placed in every part of the city—but the head quarters are at 23 Royal street, opposite the post office. The proprietor is J. Mason.

6. OUR RECUSANCY!!—Finally, many of the papers in Carolina and Georgia are down upon us about one editorial, "*The Cause of the South,*" in the July number. Our *irony* has all gone for nothing with them, and the sad and mournful accents in which we treated the distractions in southern councils, has been mistaken for opposition or indifference! Strange that *we*, who have been and are still thought, by most who know us, *a very Hotspur* in these wars of the South, and who have bourne the heat and burden of the fight for nearly ten years, should *now* be thought derelict and contumaceous by those professing to be allies, and after coming in at the very eleventh hour! Our whole life has been a practical refutation of the absurd and ridiculous charge of the editor of the *South Carolinian.* Does that paper know (if not, there are thousands here who do) the fact—we were one of the *original* Nashville Convention men, when scarcely five others in the State seemed to be in favor of it. We periled much upon that issue then, but were beaten. Notwithstanding this, our banner has ever been hanging out—and upon the outermost wall, too—never to be torn down, until the citadel is safe from every internal and foreign foe. Yet, the *South Carolinian* counsels southern men *not* to support the Review, and levels a bull of excommunication against it! As old Wolsey said, on a memorable occasion:

"O! Cromwell! Cromwell!" etc.